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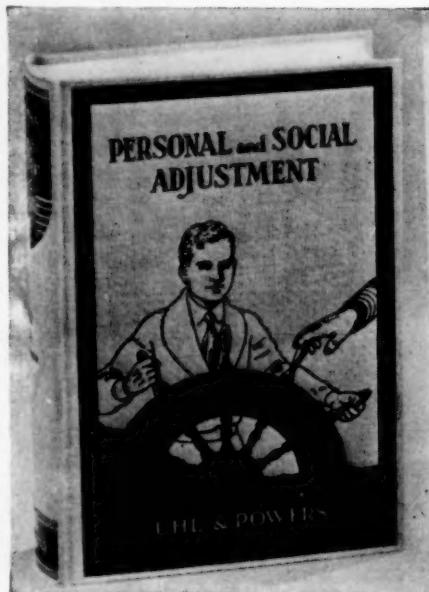
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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXIX, NUMBER 6

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“History Teaches . . .”

BENJAMIN HASKEL

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Probably the fondest indoor sport of the popular philosopher, demagogue, soap-box orator, and autocrat of the dinner-table is to assert, when in a tight corner of a discussion, “History teaches . . .” in order to settle the point. He usually chooses an isolated example, without the attendant facts, and glibly draws the “lesson” about which he has already made up his mind, independent of history.

Does history really teach any lessons? If so, how can we discover them? Only a penetrating and exhaustive study of the rise and development of man and social institutions in various lands since the days of the primitives, some six or seven thousand years ago, can really equip anyone adequately to draw conclusions or lessons. What does such a study reveal?

No abrupt change has ever occurred in all the customs of a people and cannot in the nature of things take place because the strong conservative tendency and the power of inertia in society force mankind to do this year and next year what it did last year, in spite of changes in some one or other aspect of life. For example, the Russian Revolution brought about striking changes in national economic life, such as wide-spread nationalization and industrialization, but at the same time continued the oppressive political system and Cheka of the old regime and also followed the broad lines of Czarist Russia's foreign policy. In the Middle Ages, the rise of towns, trade, industry and money created a veritable revolution in the political and urban economy of Europe, and even helped the peasant to gain greater freedom, but the manorial organization of agriculture and the primitive methods of cultivation continued down to the

late eighteenth century in England, the nineteenth century in most of the continental countries, and the twentieth century in Russia. It is thus impossible to divide history into clear-cut periods, separated by specific years from each other, because history has continuity and change is gradual.

No sudden change even in a single aspect of life is really as sudden as it appears. Every important, thoroughgoing change involves a slow accumulation of events in the past, which give strength to the forces of change and eventually bring it about through many measures over an extended period. Thus, the French Revolution may superficially appear to have occurred in the year 1789. But a little study and reflection will reveal that events such as the accumulation of an enormous national debt, the development of a wealthy and influential middle class, the growth of liberal and democratic ideas of government, and the slow inner corruption of the State—which prepared the way for change—had their start, some in the early eighteenth century, some in the seventeenth century, and some even in the sixteenth century. Moreover, the consummation of the change, that is, the achievement of a democratic republic in France, took almost a century, from 1789 to 1880.

The history of man is not merely a story of steady, even progress, but includes periods of steady, disastrous retrogression. The decline of the ancient civilizations of Greece and Rome were attended by the disruption of highly developed political institutions and economic activities and the resort to primitive, personal, feudal ties to prevent complete chaos

and anarchy. It involved the loss of the great achievements of the ancient cultures and thus retarded progress after the fourth century. It was not until the sixteenth century that mankind caught up with the ancients.

Just because there are such ages of progress and decline, just because the present and future are rooted in the past, our judgment of situations in our day should not be determined by events of the moment, but rather by historical perspective, that is, by what the history of the past teaches us about future development. For example, there are alarmists today who try to tell us that the development of fascism in Europe is a foreshadowing of the end of modern civilization. But the student of history, who is acquainted with previous periods of triumphant reaction, such as the Age of Metternich after the Napoleonic wars, when all manifestations of liberal thought and action were suppressed, knows that sooner or later they give way to periods of progressive, thoroughgoing change, such as occurred between 1848 and 1914, when democracy, trade unionism, social legislation and the socialist movement were making great headway.

Not everything is possible at a given period of history, but only those things which the social institutions and conditions of the period make possible. Industrialization of a country, for example, is possible only when it has a sufficient supply of capital to invest, a large army of proletarian labor, an adequate supply of raw materials, sufficient technical knowledge and equipment, and markets to absorb industrial products. Thus, England in the second half of the eighteenth century was the first country to be industrialized because she was the first to have these necessary pre-conditions which make industrialization possible. The other nations of Europe began their industrialization much later because they developed the essential pre-conditions after 1815. It was impossible to industrialize a land in ancient times or in the Middle Ages because those essentials were not present at such stages of history.

Not everything old is bad and not everything new is good, and vice versa. Our evaluation of a thing—whether it be a political or economic system, a philosophy or ethic, or a school of art or music—must be determined, not by whether it is old or new, but exclusively by its inherent value, its cost, and its applicability at a given stage of history. Thus, democracy, in idea and practice, was a product of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, but nevertheless, it is a precious human heritage. It is a good in itself, won by centuries of human struggle and suffering, and thus far, the most effective political system evolved by man to preserve freedom and speed up progress. On the other hand, fascism is a very new thing, a post-war phenomenon, but nevertheless, a menace to mankind, a resurrection of savage primi-

tivism, and absolutely unsuited to the solution of the greatest problem of our day: how to achieve economic security as well as political liberty. Of course, the past also produced some bad things like magic, slavery, serfdom and autocracy, just as the recent present has produced some good things like great music, science, democracy and socialism.

Revolution does not necessarily involve violence, bloodshed and terror; it may also be peaceful, gradual and even unseen. For example, the American colonies won independence through the use of armed force and terror while Canada won its freedom through the gradual attainment of self-government and equality within the British Empire during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. But essentially, revolution is a fundamental change or transformation, not merely the substitution of one absolute monarch by another, one capitalist party by another, or one dictator by another. Revolution may be social and economic as well as political, as evidenced by the Industrial Revolution in Europe and America. Revolutions are not made—they develop. Revolutionists cannot make a revolution at any time they choose. If the necessary social institutions and conditions do not exist, all the plotting in the world will not produce it. Thus, for example, Utopian Socialists like Babeuf and Owen tried to usher in socialism before the development of a large, enlightened and organized industrial working-class and naturally failed.

However, great social revolutions do not occur merely because of the strength of the revolutionary parties opposing the old social system, but rather their attack is made possible, in the first place, by a split in the old ruling classes and the inner decay of the old regime. The classic example of this is the French Revolution. The decay and corruption of the government and the army, and the judicial and financial system had gone so far that when the liberal and judicial nobility joined the middle classes and the peasants in their opposition to the old regime, it simply collapsed. The English reform bill of 1832, which gave the middle class a voice in the government, was brought about not merely by reformers, but rather and especially by the desertion of many landed aristocrats to the side of the middle class. They had developed similar economic interests through their new investments in trade and industry, and the decline in economic importance of landed property in comparison with commercial and industrial property revealed the English aristocracy as a mere vestige of a long-decayed feudal system.

No great social revolution was ever brought about by a minority of the people. It always involved the coöperation of a few groups making up the majority: in France, the middle classes, the peasants and the liberal nobility; in England, the middle classes, the working class and the aristocrats with commercial and industrial interests; in Russia, the middle class,

the working class, the peasants and the soldiers (who came primarily from the peasants and workers). Finally, revolutions are not necessarily the result of dire economic distress. If bitter conditions really bring about revolution, then the French Revolution of the late eighteenth century should have occurred at the beginning of that century as the peasants were much worse off in 1700 than in 1789; the Russian Revolution of 1917 should have occurred in the seventeenth or eighteenth centuries when the mass of the peasantry were subjected to serfdom. Psychological factors explain why the French peasants looked upon their conditions as especially onerous in 1789: the very alleviation of their misery during the course of the eighteenth century made them feel all the more acutely what remained of it. Similarly in Russia, education explains the revolutionary temper of the peasantry in 1917. For two generations they had been exposed to the educational activities of the Social Revolutionaries (Narodniki) and when the war revealed the corruption and decay of the Czarist regime, the peasants joined the urban revolutionaries.

The history of mankind is the story of man's gradual emancipation from the tyranny of social institutions and conditions. In ancient times, slavery was the lot of the masses, but it slowly died out as it grew economically untenable and as humanitarian emancipation increased. In the Middle Ages, the majority of men became serfs, supporting an upper-class of nobility and clergy, but the serf's status was freer than that of the slave, as he was not property. On the contrary he had property rights and also some personal liberties, circumscribed though they were. As feudalism slowly disintegrated, the serfs became free peasants, owning their own land although without political liberty. In the last century and a half, political freedom was generally extended to the masses of the people. But in the same period came

the rise of capitalistic industry, with its economic exploitation of both farmers and industrial workers, who thus lost their earlier, relatively-secure economic condition. Thus, the great problem facing mankind is how to change the capitalist system so as to achieve economic freedom as well as political freedom.

History teaches that freedom is essential to progress, and without it, progress slows down and even ceases. In those periods increasingly free of religious or political absolutism, mankind made the greatest material and intellectual progress. Thus, so long as the medieval Church was a great secular and spiritual power, scientists like Galileo had to retract scientific truth and the mass of mankind were compelled to conform unthinkingly to such dogma as the infallibility of the Church and the divine origin of the power of popes and kings. Critical dissent was punished by excommunication, torture, the stake, or religious war. But when the Church's worldly power began to decline there was a Renaissance, or rebirth of learning. When intellectual inquiry and criticism then turned from religion and literature to government and economics, the absolute monarchies also became a barrier to progress. When political philosophers voiced constitutional and democratic ideas of government and when economists advocated freedom of trade and industry, the absolutisms suppressed all freedom of thought and publication. For they feared the free circulation of ideas would undermine their political power and economic interest. They resorted to arbitrary imprisonment, exile and execution. But as the absolute monarchies began to decay, and as their power to stifle dissent and criticism weakened, enlightenment increased enormously, pure science bloomed as never before, and applied science made material prosperity a practical possibility for the first time in human history. Thus it is that freedom is the atmosphere of progress.

Methods of Teaching Current Events

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The purpose of this paper is to present the numerous ways, suggestions and experiments that have been used by teachers in the secondary schools to teach a relatively new subject—an important one—but a difficult one to teach.

The subject, current events, is a somewhat recent addition to our school curriculum. No doubt, it is an outcome of the new interest in world affairs which

has resulted from the period of the World War. More is known by most teachers about the content of current history than about what may and should be done, and how to do it. The usefulness of the subject is taken for granted, but the method or methods to use are a recurring problem. It is self-evident that we should teach current events and that often history and the other social studies have not been made

sufficiently practical. Social efficiency today demands a greater knowledge of current happenings. Such a knowledge is necessary if we are to have a more intelligent leadership. As teachers we have usually held that fact "must be seasoned with age" before it becomes palatable to the historical sense.¹ But there is some of the historical in a current happening which must be photographed at the time of action or it is soon gone forever.

The teacher must not forget in teaching current events that their relation to the past and the implications of the present must also be understood. We should teach in such a way as to avoid superficial judgments, and to understand the play of great forces in the universal story of humanity. The subject must not displace history which is a necessary prerequisite to understanding the present. It is through such a study that the pupil finds an avenue of approach to the outside world. But only the events which can be appreciated and understood should be studied by the students. This can be done and something more may be taught than the long tale of vice and crime which appears in our daily newspapers.

Probably the teaching of current events has received less scientific encouragement and investigation in regard to methods by educators than any of the social studies. There is a need for more knowledge on this subject. Yet on the part of the teacher there has been a greater tendency to assume some special type of organization than with most school subjects. If there is to be an improvement in the quality of the work from year to year, it will require an improvement in the methods.

THE COMMITTEE METHOD

The first method to be considered here is that titled "committee." There are five different types of this method which have been used in our public schools. These are: the committee proper, the criticism committee, the magazine staff, the topical committee, and the general assembly committee. Generally speaking the committee method is in one sense a topical method. This name depends purely upon a choice of words.

1. The Committee Proper:

In the use of this procedure, a tentative outline is made which will cover the main issues before the public as found in the newspapers and periodicals. The outline is made out by the teacher and class working together.² A committee is then appointed which is responsible for a field. These committees

may give brief reports each week or month. The number of committees reporting on any given day and the frequency of reports depend upon the amount of material available. The report of a committee is usually made by the chairman who has been selected by the committee or teacher previously. The personnel of the committees should be shifted frequently so that the student will have an opportunity to read in several fields. The members of each committee in this plan all gather material on their subject and then boil it down in a committee meeting so it will be in an abbreviated form for the report. After the report has been made a general class discussion follows.

There are numerous modifications of this procedure in the way the committees are chosen and the way the subjects are assigned. Often they have been drawn by lot. The committees may be assigned to such fields as: (1) America, (2) Europe, (3) Asia, (4) Africa. Another way may be to divide according to the following: (1) historical, (2) geographical, (3) political, (4) literary.³ One group may be left to find material on any subject which is brought out in the recent textbook lessons. Another plan is to have teams as committees. Each team has a captain. On the day for current events the captain of the team reporting assumes the teacher's chair and calls on his team-mates to discuss the topic for consideration. Then he may ask the whole class a few general questions. The class in turn may question the captain on the subject. The teams may also have competitive responses.⁴ All of these are merely modifications of the committee proper as a type of method.

2. Criticism Committee:

This type of committee method provides that the teacher appoint a criticism committee from the class. The committee reads as broadly as possible and comes prepared to criticize, constructively, the reports made by the other committees or by individual pupils.

3. Magazine Staff:

Another type which has proved quite popular and successful is that of the magazine or newspaper staff. The writer has tried this plan and it has been very successful in the sense of getting a better type of news from the pupil. If the student knows that a good description of an event may be printed in the school paper, he usually attempts to achieve this honor. In this type, the class, or a part of it, is organized as a staff. A managing editor is selected by the class, with the approval of the teacher. The managing editor in turn appoints editors of the different departments, such as, Science, Literature, Education, Government, etc. These editors then select other class members as reporters for their departments. Of

¹ Henry A. Foster, "Study of Current History, a Basis of Democracy," *The Historical Outlook*, X (June 1919), 339.

² Rollo Milton Tryon, *The Teaching of History in the Junior and Senior High School*. (New York: Ginn and Company, 1921), p. 203.

³ Reginald S. Kimball, *Current Events Instruction*. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929), p. 41.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 43.

course, the editors and reporters are shifted about throughout the year in order to broaden the instruction. The board of editors next examines newspapers and magazines for material that will explain their subject or field. Articles are assigned to the reporters for reading and note-taking. Later the reporters will give summaries of their reading to the class. When the class period is held, the managing editor is in charge. This puts the teacher in the background where he can supervise the work of the entire class. After the reports are given a general discussion follows.⁵ The writer once observed a class which edited an edition of the local city newspaper after it had been trained in this method. In several cases the articles in this special number proved to be of higher caliber than those in the average local daily paper.

4. Topical Committee:

When this type is used each committee is assigned some special topic to study over a period of time. The committee collects material, analyzes it, and has its chairman or some member of the committee, to give their report to the class. Topics may be such as: The Repeal of Prohibition, Unemployment Relief, Work of Second Session of Seventy-Third Congress, The President, etc. This type makes some provision for the students to follow the line of their interests. The teacher may assign topics to the committees with weaker students which will not be above their ability. It is good in that it impresses the principle of co-operation in their work. The student may have his interest awakened by sharing his problem with others and learning to work with the group. The method also gives good training in following the continuity of a subject for some time.

5. General Assembly:

The general assembly plan is one that has been used considerably in the smaller high schools. In this type the work is usually directed by a committee, but all students in the assembly may participate in the discussion. It is sometimes given in the form of the old spelling bee, or if written there may be some special award for the one who achieves the highest score. Usually this plan does not require any assigned reading; it is extra-curricular, but it may inspire some pupils to read and thus keep abreast of the times.

CIVIC AND POLITICAL METHODS

This is the second class of methods into which many types fall. Three types are known in this group. They are the current events club, the debate, and the laboratory.

⁵ Charles G. Vannest, "Experiments in the Use of Current Events," *The Historical Outlook*, XVI (November, 1925), 332.

1. The Current Events Club:

The class is organized into a legislative body—a Congress, Convention, Parliament, or League of Nations. If a Convention, a temporary chairman is appointed by the teacher. He presides until the permanent organization is set up. The permanent officers make their speeches of acceptance. The officers are a president, secretary (who keeps notes on the reports later given, and the attendance), and four committees—Committee on National Affairs, Committee on Foreign Affairs, Committee on State Affairs, and Committee on Local Affairs. News is collected before the next meeting when the reports are made by the committees. Each member of the committee may give some topic in the field of that committee. More students thus participate. The class is required to read to supplement the discussion which takes place after the reports. Motions are made at times, such as—to subscribe for some magazine, to set a special date to discuss some important subject, or to amend the constitution if the organization has one. When a report is made by a committee the president calls to see if there is any further information on the subject. At the close of the meeting he asks if there has been any news omitted; if so, it may be discussed. Before adjournment a summary of the important topics is given by the president or placed on the board. This is then copied by the students in their notebooks.⁶ There is a chance in this plan for the shirkers to depend on the chairman for most of the work. This method has been useful to train students in English, public speaking, and parliamentary procedure. At the end of the term a comprehensive examination is usually given covering the material studied.

A modification of this type is to have some girl act as the hostess for the club—the period to be called "Her afternoon at home." The other members serve as callers, each of whom is assigned a topic to prepare. When the caller has arrived and the greetings are over the hostess may remark about her interest in some subject but express her lack of knowledge about it. The caller then proceeds to tell what she knows about the subject. Other callers may add anything they know about it.⁷

2. Debate:

Many topics are suitable for debate. If a debate is used as a method it may be a general one in which all the class takes part, or a formal one in which a few participate. It may resemble the Webster-Hayne debate or others which are known to the class. This method, however, is old and to many students is monotonous.

⁶ Lewis J. Stockton, "Teaching Current Events," *The Historical Outlook*, XI (January 1920), 14.

⁷ Reginald S. Kimball, *Current Events Instruction*, p. 44.

3. Laboratory:

This method is often used in civics classes. It consists of trips to the city council, state legislature, etc. This plan may be applied in teaching current events. A school also may have a large library where pupils may go to read at a certain period and thereupon discuss anything they find in their reading with other students there or with the teacher. Here the pupils become acquainted with different government publications and standard periodicals. They may also be taught how to "look up" facts, and how to use the various library aids.⁸ Yet, this may overlap the work in English courses. Students, under this plan, may be tempted to take advantage of the freedom of this method and as a result accomplish little.

RECITATION METHOD

The third class into which most procedures fall is the recitation. The chief types of this method are the textbook, roll call, individual report, historical, problem, notebook, scrapbook, card file, clipping file, prophetic index, current words, question box, socialized recitation, and daily class work.

1. The Textbook:

The textbook in current events is a newspaper, periodical, or a specially printed current events paper. When this method is used every pupil should have a copy. If the class or the school cannot furnish them, the plan is not advisable. The one selected should be chosen from the viewpoint of availability and adaptability for class use. Because of this some teachers prefer to use such papers as *Current Events*, *The News Outline*, or *Weekly News Review*. In these, the contents are usually on the student level. Above all things the text must be current. This is the objection to some monthly publications, for the news is usually stale before the magazine gets into the hands of the pupil. The utility of the daily newspaper is questionable. Its material often lacks verification of facts and digestibility. The important topics may be lessened to give way to startling news as well as to much undesirable material. The magazine on the other hand has verified material, but it is a retrospective summary. Simplicity, information and cost must all be considered in selecting a text.

The teacher and the class may read the articles together, noting important news and explaining it. The teacher may assign a lesson in the text by outlining the topics, or have the pupils outline the topics.⁹ The pupils may read it and ask questions and discuss it in class. The teacher may give problems the solution of which the students can find in the articles. Informal debates may be had upon different

interpretations of the topics from the reading.¹⁰ Of course, there is always the possibility of conducting the regular recitation on the periodical as one would on the history text. Some magazines or papers send out questions on the articles contained in each issue of their publication.

2. Roll Call:

Each pupil is simply held responsible for some important current event, obtained anywhere. Likewise a student may choose a topic and follow it for some time and report his event each time his name is called. These often form the basis for a general forum or discussion by the class on the event. The difficulty is that it may degenerate into an unsystematic plan—out of which the students will remember very little, except perhaps some "wise-cracks."

3. Individual Report:

This plan is one commonly used, especially in western schools. The student is assigned some topic or topics upon which he must report. The topic may or may not be allied to the history text subject. If it is the pupil gives his report when that subject is reached followed by class discussion. If it does not pertain to the textbook it may be given at the beginning or close of some period. The class is usually required to take notes on the reports and write up their notes in a notebook. When the student gives a report it should be a concrete summary of his reading and not rambling remarks and unrelated facts. The class is usually held for a general knowledge of the subject at a test given at the end of the term. Whenever this method is used the student should be required to give the sources for his material. One difficulty is that pupils may feel their work is done when their report has been given. This is, of course, a matter of discipline.

4. Historical:

In this type the teacher assigns some important topics in local, national, or international news and requires the pupils to follow them for some time. It may also be required that they study the historical background of the topic. The class period may include discussion, questions by the teacher, by students, reports, or written tests over the topics assigned. Whatever system is used the teacher should not fail to bring out any important points. This method has been much used by history teachers.

5. Problem:

This plan may be similar to some modification of the textbook plan. The teacher assigns the class certain problems. Pupils will find the answers in their reading. The student makes an outline of the material on the problem which serves as the center of class discussion.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 47-49.

⁹ Charles G. Vannest, "Experiments in the Use of Current Events," *The Historical Outlook*, XVI (November, 1925), 332.

¹⁰ Reginald S. Kimball, *Current Events Instruction*, pp. 26-29.

6. Notebook:

This is the traditional notebook plan. The pupil is expected to keep a digest of the week's news in his notebook. In some cases it may be his summary, outline, or the clipping with certain notes.¹¹ There is usually a system used such as:

- I. Local Events (or National or International Events)
 - A. Name of event
 - (1) Reference
 - (2) Digest of event, etc.

This has been a successful method in that it impresses the importance of the event on the mind of the student.

7. Scrapbook:

In this case the notebook serves as a scrapbook, kept by each pupil. Clippings pertaining to the subject discussed during the year are included. Also, there may be one large scrapbook made by all the students. In this case the material is brought to class and its worth discussed before it is put in the scrapbook. The large scrapbook becomes the property of the school at the end of the term and is used for future reference. This method is rather elementary for the upper grades.

8. Card file:

Each current event is condensed by the student and placed on a card. The cards are classified and filed according to their subject.

9. Clipping File:

This is very similar to types seven and eight above. Here the clippings may be kept in large manila envelopes. The subject is written on the envelopes and all the clippings on that subject are kept therein. These are then filed alphabetically by subjects. It is valuable as a future reference.

10. Prophetic Index:

If a periodical is used as a textbook the students may list what they expect to appear in the next issue. When it arrives they may check their list and try to reason why the editors didn't include all they thought they would or make the choice they did. This method has not been widely accepted.

11. Current Words:

This plan is merely a system whereby the students keep a list of the current words, terms and phrases, which they think are essential to understand to be a good citizen. The amount of general knowledge gained by this plan is questionable.

12. Question Box:

In this type the students make out a list of questions on their text or on topics assigned to the class. Other students are asked to answer them.

13. Socialized Recitation:

The students conduct and manage the class. The teacher remains in the background. The instructor sees that the necessary information and references are given on each subject. The theory is to draw all the class into the discussion. If the class is organized like a club, the officers preside and have various reports and discussions.

14. Daily Class Work:

With this method no prescribed period is set apart for the study. Various methods may be used from time to time. The chief plan is to tie up the current events with the class work or the collateral readings. This may degenerate into no constructive work as far as instruction and learning are concerned.

MISCELLANEOUS PROCEDURES

There are a few miscellaneous procedures which are being used in some secondary schools. These are: the pageant or drama, bulletin board, picture-cartoon, radio, written work, and lecture.

1. Pageant or Drama:

This is a plan frequently used in the junior high school. Campaign speeches, rallies, elections, and events may be dramatized in many ways, vitalizing the subject for the students. The writer witnessed two such pageants in Ohio. A few years ago a celebration was held commemorating the founding of the first high school and the advancement of education in general. Periodicals and newspapers included many articles on it. Under the direction of a teacher in a junior high school a class worked out a pageant on the development of education in the United States. It is not folly to say it was very realistic. The next year a pageant on the history of the state of Ohio was developed. The productions were so realistic and so true to the historical accounts that they were marvelous accomplishments.

2. Bulletin Board:

Where this type is used clippings are brought to class by the students and the ones important enough are selected by the class in their discussion and placed on the bulletin board in the classroom. In this way the entire class may have a chance to read them. Some teachers use the plan of posting clippings on current events themselves and then holding the class responsible for the reading of them before the day of the discussion.

3. Picture-Cartoon:

This method is used more in the junior high school.

¹¹ W. C. Blakey, "Better Results in Current Events," *Pennsylvania School Journal*, LXXI (May, 1923), 415.

but has been used very successfully in the senior high school. Cartoons or pictures are brought to class and studied in connection with the subject matter of the newspapers or periodicals. Or the pictures may be studied separately. They may also be used to illustrate the subject matter of the regular ideas portrayed. In some cases the class artist has been asked to try his skill portraying some topic studied.

The newsreel may be used if the school has a motion picture machine. The difficulty is that often many in the class may have seen the reel before in the theatre. Whatever scheme is used the teacher must train the students to relate the pictures to life and reality. They must be encouraged to tell what they see, to look for the message in the picture, to use their imagination, and what they already know, to describe the possibilities in a picture. The eye is one of the chief ways to stimulate the pupils' interest. The use of pictures has been advocated and practiced for many years by the government and other public agencies. Advertisers use them continuously. Above all, the teacher must not let this method degenerate into just "another picture show."

4. Radio:

This is one of the most recent experiments in the classroom. Where this plan is utilized the class listens to special programs of news broadcast from time to time. The Ohio Department of Education has adopted a plan whereby one day a week for thirty minutes a "School of the Air" program is broadcast. It usually deals with some question within the realm of the social studies. The class may listen to such programs and later discuss what they heard.

5. Written work:

A few teachers have preferred to assign some topic

for the class to read about for a designated time. On the day set aside for current events the teacher gives a written test on this material. This plan, if restricted to written work, of course, omits much of the training which may be had by good discussions.

6. Lectures:

This last type to be discussed is the lecture method. Where this is used the teacher or some outside speaker may present to the class some topic. Such persons can usually develop the subject better than the students and can cover a vast amount of material. The facts can be better organized and presented. But the talk should possess simplicity and brevity, and the method should be used sparingly. There should always be time afterwards for class discussion or for questions put to the speaker to aid in clearing up any matter which he did not get over in his talk. Tests may be given to ascertain how much the student understood. An outline or summary of the speech may be required.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion we may say that the study of current events gives a challenge to both the pupil and the teacher to strive toward a new endeavor. Various methods have been developed by alert teachers. There are innumerable modifications of the various procedures used. The best teachers do not confine themselves to any one plan or procedure, but use various devices which will fit the subject matter and the class. There is no one best method. It is unreasonable to expect good results if the presentation of the material has been unmethodical. Thus, constant planning is ever necessary.

The Psychological Basis for Methods in Teaching Pupils of Different Ability Levels¹

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There are few of us who do not, at times, yearn for those good old days when it could be assumed that most of our high school pupils were quite capa-

ble of profiting by what we liked to call a "sound academic education." While it was a comfortable thought, the result of its application to teaching in the secondary schools was not particularly happy. Four results were almost inevitable—results which continue to plague us and which make it difficult to adapt our procedures to individual differences at the high

¹This paper and the two following papers were presented at the Social Studies Club of the Philadelphia Teachers Association, April 30, 1938. They treat aspects of one of the most important problems facing teachers today—that of the individual differences of pupils. (Ed.)

school level. The first result was the standardizing of the academic pattern in American secondary schools. This process of standardization was bad enough in the urban schools, but in the smaller rural high schools of the country it was especially unfortunate. The second result was the high rate of failure and elimination so characteristic in our high schools of fifteen and twenty years ago and is still with us to a certain extent. The third result of our assumption that the pupil must be able, was the development in the minds of far too many teachers of a contempt for the dull and a distaste for the truly bright pupil. The final result was the development of confirmed attitudes toward what constitutes a "good" education at the secondary level.

All four of these developments, resulting from our traditional notion of the exclusive nature of secondary education, still trouble us in our efforts to adapt the school to new demands and conditions. With such a background we are trying to formulate a program of education based upon principles which are opposed to the old idea of a selective secondary school. Since these principles will underly all that I have to present, I will state them briefly before proceeding further. We might call these principles "basic to the school's effort to adapt its program to pupils of varying levels of ability."

First, we are committed to the belief that all children are educable. This applies even to the feeble-minded, although we do not expect the public school to care for those definitely defective in mentality. Every child in school, unless he is defective, must be provided with educative experiences meaningful and profitable to him. It is not his privilege; it is his right!

Second, we are committed to the desirability of a *liberal* education for all children. On this point there is by no means complete agreement. It is my belief, however, that a policy of education which restricts the training of the less capable to preparation for vocational pursuits only, is short-sighted and suicidal in a democracy. If the major purpose of education in a democracy is the development of good citizenship then *all* must receive such training.

Third, we are committed to the principle of educational efficiency. Failure is an evidence of educational inefficiency. Permitting pupils to take courses for which they are obviously unfit is educational inefficiency. Permitting the bright to waste their talents is educational and social inefficiency.

Fourth, we are committed to the democratic practice of educational and vocational guidance. We believe in choice and the development of initiative, but we also recognize that choice and initiative may be blind and unintelligent. The school is obligated to help each pupil attain a better understanding of himself and of his opportunities and to help each pupil make wise choices.

Finally, we are committed to the desirability of the preservation of ability. We cannot afford to expend all our efforts on the dull to the neglect of those of real talent. It is my own belief that in our efforts at adapting education to individual differences we have given far too little attention to the superior pupils, of whom, fortunately, there are many.

These five principles are basic to our concern for individual differences. Although the problem of individual differences in the secondary school has been forced upon us by forces outside our control, we must develop programs of education for youth of varying abilities in accordance with such principles as these stated. Unless we believe sincerely in such principles our programs at best will be make-shifts.

The basis of all education is to be found in our understanding of the child to be educated and of the world in which he is living and for which he is being educated. This means that how we teach, what we teach, how we organize and administer the school, how we evaluate our results—all have a psychological as well as a sociological basis. The psychological basis of methods has usually been regarded to be what we have called the "psychology of learning." Unfortunately our psychologies of learning have too often been developed by laboratory psychologists more interested in rats, mice and monkeys than in children. The new psychology of learning that has emerged in the past twenty years is a teacher's psychology. It is a psychology of the child, a psychology devoted to the study of the total behavior of the child from infancy to adulthood. It recognizes that what the child learns is not how to run mazes, or memorize nonsense syllables, but to play with other children, to buy groceries, to swim, to draw pictures and to do all the other interesting and necessary things of normal, happy living. If, then, we are to have a workable psychological basis for methods it must rest in the study of the child in his normal relationships. This is the kind of psychology we want and need as teachers.

A psychology of methods that is concerned with the study of children at once becomes involved in the problems of individual differences. It is not necessarily my intention to discuss the fact of individual differences. We are concerned, however, with the types of differences that bear a significant relation to the success of learning in the classroom. Our topic speaks of "ability levels." Ability to do what?

There is real danger that when we talk about ability levels we accept a narrow definition of ability. For example, there is a high school teacher who excused herself from all responsibility for teaching a boy civics because he had an I.Q. of 85. In the first place the I.Q. was based on a single group intelligence test and in the second place the I.Q. alone was not an adequate index of educability in civics. This teacher's attitude was inexcusable. Yet many people continue

to consider ability to do school work solely in terms of group intelligence test scores. In a real and functional sense anything that influences the learning efficiency of a child is a determiner of his "ability level." Among high school pupils the following characteristics and influences would fall under the heading of "determiners of ability":

- Ability to read with speed and comprehension.
- General intelligence as revealed by adequate tests.
- Previous general and special preparation.
- Social characteristics, especially those that condition his relationships in the classroom.
- Special aptitudes, such as mechanical aptitude, musical aptitude, and physical aptitudes.
- Home background, cultural influences in the home, stimulation to achievement, and attitude of parents toward school.
- Emotional state, both in and out of school, as well as general emotional stability.
- Health and physical stamina.

It is not necessary to continue this list. It is apparent that almost any influence or characteristic can bear some relation to the learning ability of a school pupil. These are the things which, in a given case, operate to form a complex pattern which determines the pupil's ability level.

Emphasis was placed upon general intelligence as a determiner of ability for two reasons. First, this is a factor which we can measure with a reasonable degree of ease. Two or more good group tests or one good individual test of intelligence will yield results worth a great deal in classifying a child as to level of ability. Second, it has been demonstrated that the results of intelligence tests constitute a reasonably accurate basis for predicting success in school work. General intelligence is, then, one of the significant determiners of ability. But in emphasizing general intelligence we need to be extremely cautious.

For example, social and personal characteristics we sometimes assign to the dull child may be the result of environmental influences and not of low intelligence as such. It may be that a dull child's undesirable behavior in the school is not caused by his dullness, but by the kind of treatment we afford him. Why is it that the majority of inmates of institutions for the feeble-minded are well-adjusted socially? It is because they are in an environment which makes demands compatible with their abilities. Similarly the school, if it is to foster the best kind of personal development, must have a program fitted to the capabilities of its pupils.

The adjustment of teaching methods to the needs of pupils of different ability levels must also rest on the recognition that regardless of ability, the basic needs of all pupils are very similar. They may differ in quality but not in kind. Regardless of ability level all pupils need success for the development of sound

mental health; they need a sense of security for the development of poise, assurance and emotional balance; they need physical health for the development of proper attitudes. Regardless of ability all pupils also need some equipment of knowledges, attitudes, skills, ideals, and appreciations which will help them to be intelligent and socially minded citizens in a democracy. The dull child may require a different type of security from that required by a brilliant child. Their knowledges may differ. But in its general pattern their needs are surprisingly similar. Because of different abilities they may need different treatment, yet the ends in mind, so far as the educator is concerned, must be quite similar. Of course, the major end is human happiness.

So far we have tried to stress these five points:

First, that our efforts to adapt secondary school teaching to individual differences in ability are hampered by the effects of a tradition of exclusiveness in the secondary school.

Second, that our efforts must be guided by a genuine desire to provide a full education for all children, and not by the hope that make-shift expedients will get us by this passing demand for popular secondary education.

Third, that the psychological basis of all good teaching must rest in our understanding of the whole child and of his development.

Fourth, that the determination of ability levels must proceed on the demonstrated fact that ability is complex and determined by many factors, of which general intelligence is one important determiner.

Fifth, that the fundamental needs of all children are very similar, though we may set up different standards and different methods of providing for these needs.

Shall we turn our attention now to the question of the learning characteristics of children of different ability levels and the implications of these for methods of teaching. We will employ the rather dangerous device of characterizing the upper and the lower levels. It is dangerous because it is apt to ignore the vast middle or "average" group who constitute the bulk of our school population. It is also apt to be misleading unless we recognize that there are many individual exceptions since the groups we characterize are determined chiefly on the basis of intelligence.

Most distributions of intelligence quotients have been set up on the assumption that the person of "normal" or "average" mental ability has an I.Q. anywhere from 90 to 110. Generally speaking, then, the person above average is the one with an I.Q. over 110 and the person below average has an I.Q. lower than 90. These lines of demarcation are quite artificial and are not to be taken too seriously. As suggested earlier there are too many other factors which influence learning to mark off these levels so exactly

as they relate to potential ability to do school work. But regardless of these levels as defined by the I.Q. every teacher knows that there are some pupils who are fast learners, when they want to be, and others who are slow learners, in spite of any effort to learn quickly. So when we speak of the two extremes, the slow learners and the fast learners, we are using only rather loosely defined classifications, based in part on the I.Q. level.

What are the learning characteristics of the fast learner, the pupil we usually characterize as bright? To summarize them very quickly they are as follows:

1. The fast learner is characterized by quick reaction time, as a rule, and by superior ease of assimilation. He can absorb the same body of knowledge in a fraction of the time required by the average learner or by the slow learner. To quote Burton, "Power to learn is a distinctive characteristic of gifted children." As a general rule they read more rapidly and with greater comprehension. There are, of course, some exceptions to this. Witty found one disability case in reading in a ninth grade who had an I.Q. of 135. In the same eleventh grade groups in Albany, New York, the A (superior) group had an average reading age six years higher than the average reading age for the C (dull) groups. This is a difference of unusual importance, especially in fields such as the social studies in which reading ability is of great importance.

2. The superior pupil as a rule has greater powers of concentration and sustained attention. Given reasonable degree of interest the bright pupil can, if he will, concentrate on an intellectual task for considerable lengths of time without apparent fatigue. This mental endurance is also a significant learning characteristic. Its implications for methods are at once apparent.

3. The superior student tends to be superior in originality, initiative, and intellectual curiosity. He is comparatively self-directing when given half a chance.

4. The bright pupil has, or tends to have, superior powers of generalization. He is much quicker to see underlying principles, to relate similar elements in a situation. In fact at times he can be surprisingly alert—alert to the point of suggesting generalizations which even the teacher has missed.

5. Similarly, the superior pupil tends to be superior in his ability to deal with abstractions. He has superior reasoning abilities.

6. Gifted pupils also tend to have superior powers of self-criticism—to know when they do not know. They do not require, in many instances, more than a hint in order to correct errors they have made.

7. Finally, the fast learner tends to have greater versatility and vitality of interest, wide range of interest and greater special talents.

Aside from, or in addition to, these superior intel-

lectual characteristics, the bright, fast-learning pupil also tends to possess superior qualities of other sorts. He tends to be large and healthy for his age. He tends to be better adjusted emotionally and socially than the average. And he is apt to possess qualities of leadership superior to the average. In brief, the child of superior intellectual ability tends to be superior in an all-round way. It is a well validated principle of psychology that abilities and characteristics of a desirable nature tend to be positively correlated.

What are the learning characteristics of the child of below average ability? The very fact that we have called him the slow-learning child answers this question in a general way. More specifically he possesses the following intellectual characteristics:

1. A general tendency toward slow reaction time, resulting in a general slowness in absorbing information. In the content subjects this is commonly, though not always, related to slowness in reading and poor comprehension.

2. Inability to transfer what is learned in one situation to another situation. It can never be assumed that the slow-learning, dull child will have learned a thing unless he has been taught it directly.

3. Tendency toward a short span of attention and a general lack of powers of concentration over long periods of time.

4. The slow learner tends to be illogical, due in part to his lack of ideas. He is apt to jump at conclusions without an adequate background of evidence. This is especially true when he deals with problems.

5. The slow learner tends to lack the power to work under his own steam. He needs constant and detailed direction; he lacks initiative.

6. The slow learner finds it difficult and in many cases impossible, to draw general conclusions from what to him is a confusing array of facts. He finds it difficult to draw specific required facts from a body for a particular purpose. If told to outline he is apt either to pick irrelevant facts or to re-write the material instead of outlining.

7. The slow learner finds it difficult to work with abstractions. Usually he will be quite uninterested in anything except the immediate and the concrete.

8. The slow learner tends to lack the ability to evaluate his own efforts and may be unusually sensitive to evaluation coming from others, especially if the criticism is negative.

9. Finally, the slow learner usually has a rather narrow range of interests, although many times his range of interests is unnecessarily limited by unfavorable home conditions.

In addition to these rather strictly intellectual characteristics, the slow-learning pupil is frequently subjected to handicaps of other sorts which make his

learning difficult. Emotionally he is often less stable than the brighter pupils, resulting in difficulties of social adjustment. He is more apt than not to come from a home lacking in culture and refinement with the result that his meager abilities have lacked the stimulus to the development that they need. He is apt, because he lacks real qualities of leadership, to resort to bullying with the result that he becomes unpopular. This in turn adds to his difficulties of social adjustment. It is of some significance to note that our juvenile delinquents are coming in alarming proportions from the group of boys and girls classified as dull by the school.

What do these learning characteristics of the bright and the less able suggest as to methods of teaching? It is at once clear that pupils of widely different abilities are very difficult to teach in mixed groups. Is ability grouping, then, the answer? It is my own belief that in larger high schools grouping has much to recommend itself. But even grouping alone will not solve the problem.

If ability grouping is used, the materials and the methods for different groups must be employed with the learning characteristics of pupils of different ability levels in mind. If, on the other hand, we continue teaching in mixed groups these same learning characteristics must serve as the basis for our methods. Briefly re-stated in terms of methods of teaching these learning characteristics of bright and slow-learning pupils suggest the following practical guides in teaching these two levels:

1. Since pupils vary markedly in the speed with which they can learn, the materials of instruction must be gauged to learning rate. At the high school level we have not done nearly enough to measure scientifically the proper rates at which to expect learning in the different subjects. In general we know that we can expect a much faster rate with the superior pupils than with average or dull pupils.

2. Closely related to this problem is the question of grading materials for different ability levels on the basis of reading difficulty. Here we must resort to all sorts of ingenious devices. I know a senior high school teacher of American history who is using an eighth grade book with his students of low ability. The only reason that he can, is that it is not labelled an eighth grade book and his students like it much better for its easy reading.

3. Pupils differ widely in their ability to concentrate and stay with a job and in their ability to learn on the basis of broad generalizations. This means that the bright may be taught in broad units but the dull must stick to rather narrow segments of subject matter. It is doubtful that the unit method will work with dull pupils unless the assignments are so differentiated that the slow learner can deal with rather small minimum learning tasks, clearly

outlined. The bright pupil requires clear directions, but once he has them he can proceed with much greater independence. The dull pupil requires an immediate concrete goal.

4. Since pupils differ widely in their ability to reason and solve problems the so-called problem method usually works better with the bright pupils. This is true in a limited sense however. The slow pupil likes the problem approach if the problems are immediate and concrete.

5. Since pupils differ widely in their ability to criticize and correct their own work, we must foster this ability among the better pupils who are most capable of it and must help the slow learner by sympathy and tact to detect and correct errors. The average dull child resents a personal direct criticism of his work. He must be patiently led to find his own errors.

6. Since pupils differ widely in their range of interests we must provide ample opportunity for the expression of individual interests among the bright and must stimulate the dull to more interests and to the development of what they have.

7. Pupils differ widely in their ability to transfer what they learn. The bright make their own transfers, the dull must be guided into specific applications with great care. By necessity the training of the slow-learner must be limited as to transfer values.

8. Finally, despite their wide differences all pupils have certain common needs. Pupils need direction and guidance, they require sympathy, they need success and all the other things which we all crave. I would especially stress the need for guidance. There is an erroneous idea that the bright pupil will progress under his own power if only he has a chance. This is true only when an initial interest has been tapped. The bright pupils need direction and guidance as much as the others, especially in the initial stages of an assignment or a unit. After they get started it is up to the teacher to judge when he should step in and offer suggestions.

To summarize briefly, the fundamental thesis of this paper is that the psychological basis of methods of teaching pupils of different ability levels is to be found in the pupils themselves. To the extent that we study them, their personal characteristics, and their learning needs, we will develop a sound basis for methods. We already know enough about the learning characteristics of the different levels to serve as general guides to methods. But no one has yet furnished a ready-made formula for this difficult problem. Only as teachers have the chance—and are willing to accept it—to experiment and to try out various methods of dealing with individual differences, will they work out workable methods for themselves.

Methods Used With a High Ability Group¹

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One of the tenets of a democratic school system is an opportunity for every child to attend a school adjusted to his interests, needs, and capacities. Its goal, as Dr. Boyer has expressed it, should be "the optimum growth of every individual child both as an individual and as a member of society."² The gifted are entitled to the same stimulation and encouragement as those not so endowed. Their standards of success should demand the same effort and concentration on their part as the regular standards exact for the normal group. If this brighter group is to get as much out of life as is possible for them, the schools must make definite provision for their education, training them for leadership in the world of tomorrow.³

The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection reported that there are one and a half million children in the public schools with exceptionally good brains and high intelligence, awaiting the opportunity to develop leadership—the potential leaders of tomorrow. As Horn well says, "Failure to develop the very bright to their highest capacity represents waste of the kind a democracy can the least afford."⁴

The first recognition of the needs of this group in South Philadelphia High School for Girls was in the establishment of an honors system, based upon outstanding educational achievement and teacher judgment. At the beginning of each term the record teacher hands in the names of girls in her record section who should be on the honor list. No girl is accepted who has made an F in a major subject. This list is then submitted to all the teachers for their approval. The votes of five teachers are necessary for a girl to become an honors student. Honors work may be done in any subject field, frequently in the form of a research problem, an art project, or a home economics' study. Or an honors girl may join the service club which, under the

supervision of the principal, carries on some definite service to the school, such as assistant to the lower form class sponsors, patrol of the halls, or school hostess. This term four girls are working on a naturalization project. By means of a questionnaire and personal interviews with our students, they are hoping (1) to locate the girls whose parents are not naturalized, and (2) to give such girls information on how their parents may become citizens. The girls may make a few visits to the homes. By these means they hope to encourage parents to take out naturalization papers. Two of the girls have already started missionary work in their own families. Honors girls are given free time on their own responsibility from any class period except physical education. Thus, they are able to pursue their special interests, if they so desire. Recognition is further given to our outstanding girls by election to our honorary society—The Torch.

Although honors work did meet a need of the brighter girls, the school felt that this was not enough. Therefore, in 1934 under the leadership of Miss Ruth Wanger, a 10B history and English class was formed for the brighter girls. It was called Special English and History and was to be continued through the 11B term.⁵ The girls were selected on the basis of I.Q. and the combined estimates of the English and history teachers. The basis of choice rested upon the pupil's noteworthy achievement in the subject, her power of associating ideas, analyzing, judging critically, and her ability to work independently.

Some idea of the mental ability of these classes may be obtained by a study of the I.Q. in the last three 11A special classes. The range of I.Q. was from 104 to 135, 111 to 138, and 107 to 136 with median I.Q. at 117.5, 122.2, and 119 respectively. The I.Q.'s in the present 10B class range from 106 to 137 with a median I.Q. of 120.5; in the 11B class the range is from 110 to 138 with the median I.Q. of 123. Each term pupils are added to the class and others are dropped. Thus, it is that the 11B class is a much more selected group than the 11A or 10B.

One of the first requisites for teaching the bright

¹ This is the second in the series of papers on the individual differences of pupils. See page 250 for the first paper, and page 258 for the third. (*Ed.*)

² Philip Boyer, "Individualized Education and Personality," *Twenty-Fifth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1938), p. 259.

³ John H. Kingsley, "How to Stimulate and Direct the Development of Youth of Exceptional Ability," *Ibid.*, pp. 265 ff.

⁴ White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, Special Education: *The Handicapped and the Gifted* (New York: Century Company, 1931), p. 549.

⁵ 10B History—Second term of tenth grade, Modern European history; 11A and 11B History—First and second term of eleventh grade, American history

students is a study of their characteristics. We found our girls, like all other bright children, had a long memory span, could concentrate, and do much independent thinking. They worked rapidly and grasped details and general summaries; they were competent and enjoyed handling debatable questions; they were eager to defend their independent conclusions; they were willing to work for deferred values. As Osburn describes them, they had the ability to see likenesses and differences.⁶ They were eager to follow guidance and utilize instruction; they wanted opportunity for the free play of mental powers; they profited by criticism from their classmates and their teachers, and were able to analyze themselves. They had a greater sense of responsibility to themselves and to others.

From the very beginning an attempt was made to correlate the English and history. A reading list, combining literature and history was compiled, with discussions in oral English on the books read and applications made in the history class at appropriate times when the topic was under discussion. A few books on the college level were included to meet the needs of the very bright girls.

For example in 11B, Frederick Allen's *Lords of Creation*; Claude Bowers' *Beveridge and the Progressive Era*; Walter Millis' *The Road to War*; and Lincoln Steffens' *Autobiography* are included. The list is quite extensive and offers a wide choice. The suggested readings are grouped under the following headings:

Histories that Cover the 11B History Period
 Big Business and Its Effects upon Our Civilization
 Biography
 Political Corruption and Consequent Attempts at Reform
 American Women
 The Worker and His Problem
 Westward Expansion
 Centralization of Power in the National Government and Adopting the Constitution to Changing Conditions
 The Farmer and His Problem
 Foreign Relations of the United States
 The Immigrant in America
 American Culture and Progress
 Racial Minorities
 Literature
 Art
 Music

The reading list for 11A classifies the books under the headings: Early America, Growth of Democracy in America, and The Industrialization of America. There are many classifications but the list is fairly comprehensive.

⁶Worth J. Osburn, *Enriching the Curriculum of Gifted Children* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931), p. 20

Since the 10B English course stresses the writing of precis, practice was offered in the current events work. Summaries were made of various articles read in the *American Observer*, the newspapers and magazines. Fuller topics were also given by members of the class and practice was given in lecture note taking. The girl who gave the topic became the leader of the discussion which followed her topic. By this method every girl had a chance to be a class leader. Whenever possible, the English and history teachers were both present for the current events lesson. One assignment in current events was to read an editorial and, if possible, a front page article on the same topic in two newspapers, keeping in mind the general policy and political leanings of each paper. Thus, the girls were given an opportunity to form the habit of facing vital current issues intelligently, critically examining the possible solutions, and learning to respect the rights of others to opinions which differed from their own.

The regular 11B English provides for training in the use of the library and in the collection and organization of material for several long papers on vocations. In the special class, topics, selected from current events and 11A history, were substituted for the vocational papers. Several terms we had a teacher in the school talk to the girls on her experiences and methods of collecting data for a paper or a book which she had written. The history teacher devoted one or two periods to the selection of topics by the girls and to instruction in the use of encyclopedias, source books, and historical bibliographies with examples to show the need for reading critically. Previous to this work, the school librarian had given two lessons on the use of the card catalog and other library devices. The class spent several English periods in the library where the first day the English and history teachers and the librarian were present to assist in the location of data. The paper was counted as a history maximum and an English minimum assignment. This project gave practice in the methods of research—the collection, organization, interpretation and application of data for social, political and economic problems. A few of the brighter girls have used the early American newspapers and diaries in the Historical Society of Pennsylvania as a basis for their papers. This work was motivated by some photostats of old newspapers which were most revealing in the insight they gave on life in young America. Some of the girls' papers are delightful essays or short biographies which give promise of literary talent. The project further encourages creative writing and illustrating. Frequently some of our special girls aspire to literary careers. One girl was very much interested in writing a biographical sketch

of some woman who was not very well known. She wanted to base her account on primary data and hoped to make a real contribution to history. She wrote on the life of Sarah Eve, the woman to whom Benjamin Rush was engaged. Her contribution was not very great, but she did get a splendid start for further research work in college. Another girl wrote a charming paper on Colonial Gardens. She described the various flowers found in the gardens, and cited examples of a few gardens today which are carrying out the colonial ideas. Her illustrations were delightful and most appropriate.

In the 11B Special this term an effort has been made to stimulate a lively and permanent interest in current events and newspapers. Each girl selected a topic which she followed through in various newspapers for one month. All types and kinds of newspapers were used, from the *Wall Street Journal* and *Herald Tribune*, to the *Daily Worker*. These clippings with a precis or summary of each article were handed in each week and corrected for English and history. This was followed by a round table discussion on a few of the outstanding topics. In addition to the class work, a small committee for one month compared and evaluated the same articles in three very different newspapers, the *New York American*, a Hearst paper, the *Philadelphia Record* and the *Daily Worker*. They made weekly reports to the class. These reports displayed a keen analysis of the purposes behind each paper, the tendency to color the news, and their effect on public opinion. This committee work, plus the scrap books made by the class, further stimulated an interest in the current happenings. One girl told me she always read the newspapers now for she had formed the habit and found she enjoyed doing it.

The study of labor problems and factory conditions created a desire on the part of the girls to visit a factory in order to see the conditions for themselves. The class selected the factory, planned the visit, and decided what it was going to look for on that visit. A lively discussion followed the return from the factory. Other visits followed to housing projects and historical centers. A term paper based upon the visits and reference books took the place of the shorter papers assigned in the 11A course. Exhibits, assembly programs, and radio broadcasts have offered additional opportunity for correlating English and history. These are group projects, managed by the girls under the guidance of the teachers. Such projects increase the opportunities for coöperative enterprises and a wide sharing of interests and purposes.

The parallel classes in English and history also give these teachers opportunity for talking over the weak points of the girls and for planning methods for improvement. For example, we have a girl in

11A this term with a very keen mind but an inferiority complex. By praise, friendly little chats and special assignments, the Special English and history teachers have been able to get her actually to volunteer in class and to take a fairly active part in the discussions.

In addition to the correlation of English and history, other methods must also be adapted to the needs of the group. Throughout the term additional references and special topics are assigned to the class or individual girls for the enrichment of the curriculum. The conference period is taken up entirely by thought questions or discussions on large topics rather than the short question and answer method. This method might be used for review, although frequently the topical review is most satisfactory. Review is not as essential for these girls. Too much drill is objectionable to the gifted.

The teacher frequently gives the pupils opportunities for group work and student leadership. The class enjoys planning its own work, establishing its standards, and assuming responsibility for the discussion. For example, last term in 11A, we were studying the development of nationalism and sectionalism. The class decided it would enjoy working on the various units in groups, the members of each group being specialists on their own topic. Additional textbooks and references were in much demand. First, each group outlined its own topic and planned its method of presentation and check-up or test. The results of the check-up were one measure of the accomplishments of the group which was presenting the topic. The group also made its own class assignment. One of the standards for judging the class method was the opportunity given to the class for participation in the discussion. Panels, forums, radio addresses, with a summary of the work given in the form of questions by Professor Quiz, or a "We the People" program added novelty to the work on the guide sheet. The teacher was a member of the group which was that day conducting the lesson.

One term, in 11A history, a small committee of the best girls revised a special guide sheet after they had completed that topic in class. Their revision was a thoughtful and valuable contribution presented from the view point of the students. They did enjoy coöperating with the teacher for the benefit of the next class.

Usually the regular rapid objective tests are given to the specials with at least two essay type questions or one outline and one essay. The 11A's this term voted to have a research test such as Mr. Price suggested at Schoolmen's Week.⁷ The teacher assigned each girl a topic. Within a limited time of three

⁷ Roy A. Price, "The Attainment of the Survey Recommendations" *Schoolmen's Week Proceedings* (1938), pp. 445 ff.

days, they looked up the data and wrote their papers. This, of course, was a further test of their ability to find data for themselves, to organize the facts and apply them to the solution of a problem.

We have no objective results which would indicate the value of our segregating the girls with high ability. However, Dr. Constance Rosenthal, the English teacher who has taken one class from 10B to 11B, is most enthusiastic over the results. She feels that her class shows a great increase in spontaneity and in ability to do independent thinking. At first, she had to suggest plays for them to dramatize, but now they are bubbling over with ideas for plays, and for special trips for the class to take. In writing reports at first, they had difficulty in getting the bibliography and organizing the material; but by 11B, they are able to work alone on the reports, gathering data from worth-while references. Just how much of this is due to the special training and how much to the high innate ability is difficult to estimate. Two social science teachers, however, say they see very little difference between the special girls and others of high ability, who for some reason or other were not in the special class, except the specials have a broader cultural background.

Just as a true evaluation of ability grouping must be deferred until adequate experimental attacks have succeeded in measuring its alleged advantages, so shall we at South Philadelphia High School for Girls continue to try out new ideas in view of our past experience. Next term in 11A we are planning a single guide sheet for both English and history

and hope by this means to bring about a closer correlation. Schoolmen have been conscious for some time of the need for special training for the bright. The studies of gifted children by Whipple,⁸ Terman,⁹ and Hollingworth,¹⁰ and Baker's monograph on the *Characteristic Differences in Bright and Dull Pupils*¹¹ are well known. Among the more recent books are Stedman's *Education of Gifted Children*¹² and Osburn's *Enriching the Curriculum of Gifted Children*.¹³ The experiments on educating superior students in New York City is perhaps the largest single study being made by any school system. This is reported in a volume entitled *Educating Superior Students*.¹⁴ In my opinion this later reference offers the most practical and helpful suggestions of the more recent books. So far, the study of the gifted child has only touched the surface. There is a wide field for worth-while investigation.

⁸ Guy M. Whipple, *Classes for Gifted Children* (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1919).

⁹ Lewis M. Terman, *Intelligence of School Children* (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919).

¹⁰ Mrs. Leta Hollingworth, *Gifted Children, Their Nature and Nurture* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926).

¹¹ Harry J. Baker, *Characteristic Differences in Bright and Dull Pupils* (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1927).

¹² Lulu M. Stedman, *Education of Gifted Children* (Yonkers, New York: World Book Company, 1924).

¹³ Worth J. Osburn, *Enriching the Curriculum of Gifted Children*.

¹⁴ Helen L. Cohen, and Nancy G. Coryell (Eds.) Association of First Assistants in the High Schools of the City of New York. *Educating Superior Students* (New York: American Book Company, 1935).

Methods Used With a Low Grade Intelligence Group¹

NELLIE POYNTZ FERRY

West Philadelphia High School, Philadelphia

A little over four years ago, in the West Philadelphia High School, we began our experiment in educational democracy. We made an attempt to provide for the "forgotten child"—in other words, the boys and girls of the lower intelligence level—from 70 to 105 I.Q. In a tentative way, we inaugurated a 9A course for those boys and girls who were failing continuously in the regular work because they were unable to meet the scholastic requirements in the various courses and who conse-

quently were often unwilling to make an effort in any direction. These boys and girls were older than the average pupils of this grade and were, in most cases, "behavior problems" who had tried the souls of teachers for several previous terms. Because they were difficult to control they were separated into a boys' class and a girls' class and were dubbed the "X" groups.

The term was undoubtedly an apt one from a descriptive standpoint, for indeed to some of us, who undertook to teach them in the social studies, they were an "unknown quantity." We had met "problem children" before, but a whole group of

¹ This is the third in the series of papers on the individual differences of pupils. See page 250 for the first paper, and page 255 for the second.

children exhibiting peculiarities of temperament, emotionally unstable, thinking up strange and annoying things to do, refusing to read or recite, uninterested in any kind of school work, was indeed a new experience—an experience that was a challenge to everything that we had known or learned before.

Yet that year was an interesting one and from the experience that we gained then and have since improved upon, we have planned our course and our methods in the social studies. At that time, there was little work being done for children who did not meet the regular requirements in the city schools and since conditions vary greatly in different districts, we had no precedent to guide us in preparing our course of study.

After we had worked with these pupils of the low intelligence group for a few terms, certain facts became evident:

1. That these boys and girls were coming to us in ever increasing numbers, their presence was no evanescent phenomenon.

2. That in the regular class rooms the boys and girls gain very little information and do not acquire requisite skills. Restless and bored, they hamper the work of the students of the higher intelligence levels.

3. Because of their intellectual and emotional difficulties, they present behavior problems that need a careful study and guidance which cannot be given in the regular classroom where the teacher carries a heavy pupil load, often of two hundred or more.

Formerly, boys and girls with an intelligence quotient of 75 to 105 would not have reached the higher schools. Defeated and discouraged, they would have dropped out of school in the sixth or seventh grades to become the "hewers of wood and drawers of water" in the ranks of unskilled labor. They had neither the desire nor the opportunity to do more.

Today, when industry will have naught of them, they join the ranks of unskilled labor and walk the sidewalks. The machine does much of their work and if, as one of the "modified" expressed it, "they are thrown out on the street," they go to recruit the ranks of the delinquent, and at best, become the prey of the wrong kind of politicians. For though they may have a low level of intelligence, they mark the ballots, mix in petty politics, and help to turn the tide when there are serious matters of state to be decided on.

Therefore, it is important, since these children will continue to be a part of our school population, that we work out for them courses of study and methods of teaching that will help them to acquire right attitudes and certain skills. In many cases our courses and methods must be quite different from those employed in teaching in the regular classroom. If we can do this, if we can make

of them fairly good citizens, able to pay their own way and happy in their personal experiences, I feel that we shall have performed a valuable service to society. How to do this is now our problem.

In order to work out successfully these courses and methods, we ask ourselves these questions: In what way are these children fundamentally different from the pupils in the regular classes? Is it merely that they are duller? We all know that affirmative answers do not present the whole problem. These pupils differ in their attitudes; they present peculiar and puzzling behavior problems. They are often emotionally unstable, and they do not easily acquire skills, even manual ones. Moreover, they have a definite group psychology.

1. First and most evident is their defeatist attitude. Failure, which has been their lot in life has colored all of their thinking. They meet each new experience with this belief—not in success but failure. Therefore, they must have tasks given to them that are simple enough for them to accomplish. Particularly this must be true until they begin to develop a psychology of success. Books not too difficult for them to read, stories easy enough for them to understand, hand work that they can do—these things must we give to them until they know the joy of really doing something well.

2. Influenced by the psychology of failure, their attitude is one of doubt and suspicion. They seem to feel that there is some sinister motive in the efforts that are being made in their behalf. Slowly but surely their confidence must be gained. When they learn to have faith in a teacher, they are willing to coöperate.

3. Generally they are not "good citizens." They have learned very thoroughly the "opportunist doctrine." They take advantage wherever they can—from each other, the school, and the world outside. This is a very serious matter and is a difficult attitude to change. Yet this change must take place for if carried to an extreme this attitude will make of these pupils enemies to society.

4. They are overly sensitive and are quite conscious of their own inferior ability. One little colored girl in speaking of a new teacher said, "He does not seem to understand that we are different from other children." At the same time, they resent hotly any reference to the fact made by either teacher or pupil. This sense of inferiority often causes rudeness—attempts to secure attention by noise and assertiveness. When they are given a chance for desirable prominence, social behavior and attitudes are generally substituted. Where the members of a class are on approximately the same mental level the sense of inferiority tends to disappear.

5. They are emotionally unstable. They fly into tempers and burst into tears when things go wrong,

they are prone to exaggerate any illness and are often exceedingly nervous. For this reason, they cannot be handled in the same way that one handles the average pupil. Due to this emotional instability, they will advance warped opinions or take a position that they know is wrong and refuse to be moved from it. (This used to be regarded as pure stubbornness.) Only by patience and careful guidance can this difficulty be overcome.

6. They are "isolationists." They have their friends among the group but they rarely mix with anyone outside. Apparently they do not join clubs or take part in school athletics. I do not find that they are likely to belong to organizations outside of school. A survey of my senior class revealed that only two out of thirty-five belonged to any clubs outside of the school. These two have joined church societies. Group activities requiring team play or coördination of any kind they avoid. Swimming is the most popular sport, doubtless because success in it is gained individually. Whether or not this isolationist attitude is due to the position taken by other children in the school, I do not know. This separatist position is hard to break down, but for their own social development these pupils must become a part of the life of the school.

In addition, to the differing attitudes, there are, too, certain skills which are difficult to acquire. As everyone knows, these boys and girls do not read well. When they can read the words they cannot concentrate long on what they are doing. This probably accounts for the fact that they cannot get information from the printed page. As they have a short memory span, they cannot remember the things they have learned. The process of acquiring any kind of skill is slowed up, too, by the fact that they cannot visualize. They write poorly because they do not have manual dexterity so, contrary to the former beliefs of many educators, vocational training is not often successfully given. In the shops and in the sewing rooms, they destroy material and break machines. Often, they are the despair of the commercial teachers in their careless use of the typewriters and mimeographs. In this work, as in the academic work, they require much slow and patient training. They want to learn shop work, typewriting and mimeographing, yet they find it very hard to acquire the necessary skills.

In addition to the difficulties I have mentioned before, we have sex problems to meet since these children do not have the normal inhibitions of the pupils of the higher intelligence levels. Sometimes this can be serious, but can only be handled by wise guidance and counseling.

What then do we have to build on when the difficulties seem so overpowering, their attitudes so wrong, and skills so hard to acquire? There are, of

course, things they can do and things that they really like to do and on these we must build, if not a "stately mansion" at least a fairly serviceable one.

1. They do like to read aloud if they have books that they can handle. They like to look at pictures and they like to listen to stories. They are very fond of making attractive notebooks and will work hard to collect magazine pictures, articles and other illustrative material.

2. They like to draw cartoons. Of course they do not always do these things well, but the fact that they *like* to do them is important. They like to make soap models, dress dolls, and they *love* to dramatize. They are fond of music and sometimes sing and dance quite well. Their taste in music is often doubtful, however. On these foundations we must work.

Since, as we have recognized before, these boys and girls are nervous and emotionally unstable, a quiet classroom is the first requisite. It never pays to begin the lesson until the pupils have settled down. If the teacher is quiet, unhurried, cheerful, the pupils will respond. Gayety and cheerfulness are great assets in dealing with these boys and girls. Again and again they tell me "I love to go to Miss B's class, she smiles at us." "Mr. M. is so pleasant our work is fun in there."

As soon as the room is quiet it is necessary to begin promptly. Delay may be fatal! In my classes, the girls (they happen to be composed entirely of girls) are divided into several committees that are responsible in different ways. Other members of the department employ a similar method. A house committee takes care of the room—arrives early, sees that the blinds are even, papers picked up, tables arranged for the committees, books and materials ready. A chairman then reviews the lesson of the previous day. The committee is very proud of the condition of the room and woe betide a pupil who throws a paper on the floor.

Of course, in spite of all our efforts, there are days when they seem restless and noisy. One of our very good teachers has an excellent plan. She says, "We will all have Quaker Meeting for a while." The class responds beautifully now and the few minutes rest and quiet changes the whole atmosphere of the room. She also makes it a point never to raise her voice, for restlessness inevitably follows.

No matter how experienced the teacher, a plan for the lesson is a vital necessity. A teacher must know exactly what his objective is and how he is going to reach it. With pupils of limited intelligence, clearness and definiteness are very important. One of our teachers has said "Find the level of student ability and plan your work accordingly." Your standard cannot always be a class standard.

Often it must be an individual one. The children differ as much in mental ability as in application, patience and often physical vigor. Where you have found the standard of achievement possible to the pupil it is desirable to hold him to it as far as you can. He should realize that a standard *does* exist.

In regard to assignments for work, they must be given definitely, written on the board and copied in the pupil's notebook, if possible. Each should know *exactly* what he is to do. His memory span is short as we have said and he will forget, but if the pupil knows that a definite assignment is *always* given it becomes a routine matter and therefore easier to take care of.

Some of the teachers do not believe in giving home work to the pupils in this course, but my experience is that a short lesson to prepare at home helps to inculcate a study habit. Generally, they like to do it if only because it puts them on the same plane as the students in the other courses. Since they do like to work with their notebooks, we keep class minutes dated and written up each evening. They also hunt for articles in newspapers and magazines at home to provide further illustrations for the topic we are studying. Often they make charts and drawings. If a topic has been discussed in the classroom, short assignments can be made in the textbook. My experience has been that they do not handle guide sheets very well. I have been more successful in making simple outlines with the pupils. These outlines, however, are only valuable to the children for review and for giving them a "picture" of the whole topic.

The amount of the pupil's work is not important especially when he first comes to you. The fact that he is trying to make the best contribution he can, is the significant fact. I really feel that we must throw aside all of our preconceived ideas and our rigid requirements and accept from these children what they can and are willing to give. I had one girl in my class who would *not* read or recite, but wanted to sing for the class. So we let her sing. The class enjoyed it and accepted it quite as a matter of course. After a while, Julia stood up one day and offered to read. From that time on Julia read and recited when the occasion offered. When it is possible praise them. Praise is your very best tool. Blame antagonizes them. Note a slight improvement, and a greater improvement will follow. They have been so hectored at home. Parents will never believe that they simply cannot do the more difficult work. They have failed at school and have been scolded for their failures. Praise means everything to them. It is so much harder for them to accomplish any task than it is in the case of the other students that the sense of success means that much more. Forget the failures! Slowly and tactfully, im-

provements in work can be suggested. When the class is with you, this can be done. Praise for Kenneth today, generally means that Mary does her work tomorrow in order that she may bask in the light of approval. The idea spreads.

Interest is the main thing to work for whether the subject is American history or social science, or indeed any other subject. If pupils are interested, they will learn something. If they are not interested, they will not make the slightest effort. Boredom is always near the surface. And it is so hard to keep them interested since they cannot keep their attention very long on one point. Fatigue comes quickly. It is necessary to watch for the first signs of waning interest. The work must be varied and the teacher must have many devices ready. Sometimes, just sending some students to the board will be sufficient, or hunting new words in the textbook and finding their meaning. Perhaps drawing a picture or a cartoon in the notebook will help, or reading in the textbook when you have been doing written work. Almost any change will cure their restlessness.

The principle that we learn by doing is especially valid in the work with these children of the lower intelligence group. They learn very little from books but much more from actually doing. Therefore, they should be encouraged to work out ideas they have gained in their reading and classroom work. Often they do this very well.

In the X groups, with which we started, were a number of boys who had been especially troublesome, yet these same boys became much interested in the Greek history Dr. Kollock was teaching them. They asked if they might write and produce a play using one of the old Greek myths. The result was "The Judgment of Paris" which was really surprisingly good. Dr. Kollock helped them with their costumes and they had a grand time. To be sure it was a trifle startling to have tap dancing at a banquet on Mount Olympus, but perhaps they were only antedating modernized Shakespearean performances; Venus was not quite one's ideal of beauty, but the boys were so much in earnest that you really did not want to laugh. Some of these boys will graduate in June and they have never forgotten the play. They speak of it with pride today. And they did learn a great deal while they were writing and acting.

Last term my modified senior class studied "Judicial Procedure" and staged a real court trial. They wrote the story (a wild thriller to be sure), but the trial was really very well done. A colored boy, Pickney by name, turned out to be a remarkably clever prosecuting attorney and did an excellent piece of work in building up evidence.

While we were studying the "Family," various class committees took over the work and prepared

programs on "Family Life in Different Lands." One of the committees produced a little German play with singing and dancing—all of it written and planned by the members.

Family budgets were also made by both boys and girls and the class did considerable investigating of present commodity prices in West Philadelphia.

During a study of newspapers, my girls' class decided to get out a newspaper themselves, and elected an editor-in-chief to direct the undertaking. The committees organized the different departments and much hard work ensued. The English and commercial teachers kindly coöperated and the newspaper, typed and mimeographed, became the prized possession of each girl who had helped to produce it.

Realizing that distorted ideas of life and wrong attitudes are often acquired by these pupils from cheap motion picture plays and poor radio programs, we have been making a study of the motion picture field. Committees report on good movies and the members of the class are interested and go to see them. We are beginning work, also, on radio programs.

This week we have been studying advertising in order that they may learn not to be the prey of "high powered salesmanship." We turned the classroom into a radio station and broadcasted from Station "M.O.D."

In the younger classes, they are much interested in making soap models and dressing dolls in historical costumes, but my girls are too grown up for that. One class did make a little puppet show which worked quite successfully.

Of course not every class will be able to do all of these things, nor will they all wish to do them. They differ in their interests and in their abilities. One must estimate and plan accordingly. Devices to arouse interest must be carried out, however. If they are interested it does so much for them.

Last of all is the matter of testing—always hard with children of this grade of intelligence. Here one needs special devices also. Essay tests are not good except occasionally to help them organize their ideas. Objective true and false tests, they can do if they are not too hard. Multiple choice requires too much reasoning and filling in blanks generally is too hard to think out. We often let them make group tests to ask the other groups and they like to do this. They take home questions to answer from the textbook or we organize contests with questions and answers.

In our senior class today are two girls who were school terrors, twice dismissed, but finally allowed to return to the modified course. Today they are happy, well-behaved pupils. Looking at the whole class and thinking what they were four years ago, I feel that the efforts of all of their teachers have not been in vain. They have gained much. Yet, of course, the work is only experimental. We have not as yet found the answer.

Something should be done to fit the boys and girls in a better way for some kind of occupation. One girl said, "This course only fits for marriage and I want to do something else for a while." Our subjects, too, could be better coördinated in the different departments. Probably teachers should be specially trained for the work. Certainly, only teachers with a social point of view should attempt it.

If our staff of councilors was sufficiently large in the school and if we could have the aid of a psychiatrist, these children could be studied and helped in their peculiar temperamental and emotional difficulties. Every one of them really requires guidance, social and vocational. We should know *all* that is happening to these children, not only in the school, but in the home and in the community. When we are able to know coöperatively all of their experiences, we shall really be able to help more effectively these boys and girls who have started life with such serious handicaps.

In closing, I want to present this letter, written anonymously by one of the girls in the senior class:

The course I am now taking is a very helpful one. The variety of subjects gives one a chance to show what he or she knows. As for myself, I feel that I am a very lucky student to be allowed the privilege of coming to school after being a total failure in the regular classes. I don't think that we should be scorned and made little of by our fellow students. Sometimes I feel a little backward when I talk to other students, but then they too, may be just skimming through. We are not allowed to skim over lessons or play half a term, we work—most of us.

As one small unit of this great school, I feel I, a modified student, am treated "swell" and given a greater break than girls and boys of other schools.

For me the subject could not be better taught. I appreciate the great amount of thought given us by our teachers. There is very little I can do or say to show what I feel for the kindness of West Philly teachers.

ILLUSTRATED SECTION

THE SOCIAL STUDIES

VOLUME XXIX, NUMBER 6

OCTOBER, 1938

EACH MONTH this section will be devoted to an illustrated aspect of American history. Beginning with the early period, the series will be brought down to the present. It is intended that this department aid teachers in their classroom work.

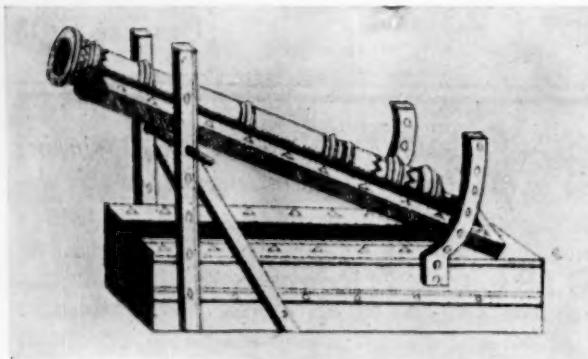
THE AGE OF DISCOVERY



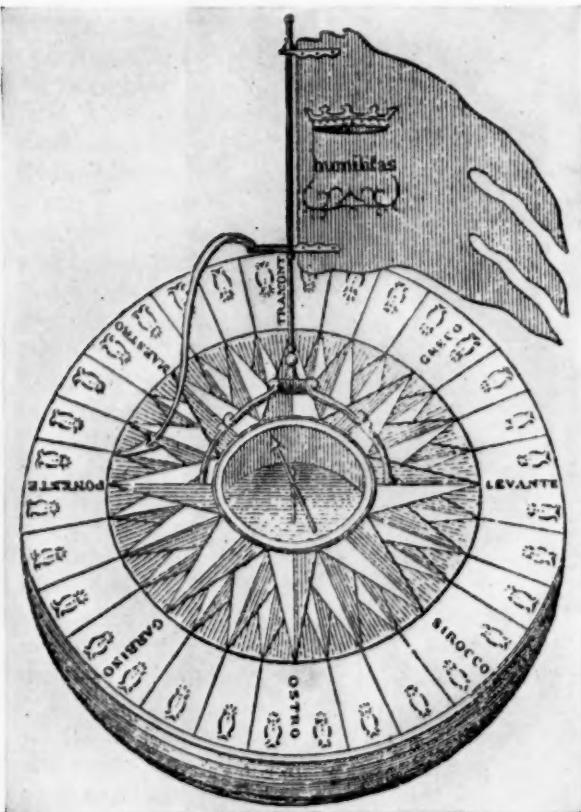
COLUMBUS LEAVING THE KING AND QUEEN OF SPAIN

This picture, drawn more than 300 years ago, depicts an artist's idea of Christopher Columbus saying farewell to King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella as he starts out on his great voyage westward. In the background may be seen the three vessels, the Pinta, the Nina, and the Santa Maria, with which he sailed from the Spanish port of Palos in 1492. Note the walls and buildings of the ancient seaport. The illustration is from De Bry's *America*.

THE AGE OF DISCOVERY



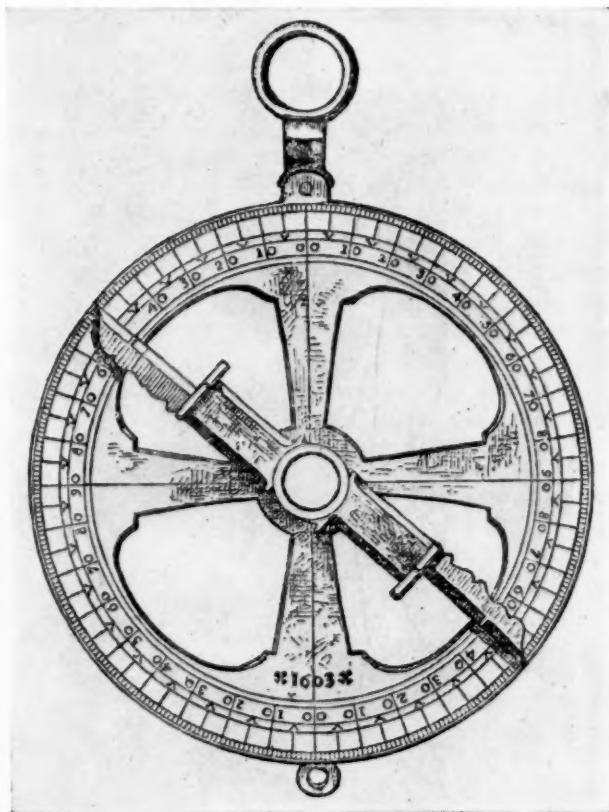
AN OLD CANNON



AN EARLY COMPASS

At the outset of the Age of Discovery, European navigation was greatly advanced by the discovery and use of the compass. Prior to its use, European sailors did not venture far beyond sight of land. Of course, on clear days, they could tell directions by the position of the sun, and on clear nights the North Star was used as a guide. But in storms, fog, and on cloudy nights, ships could not travel far or they would be hopelessly lost. The origin of the compass cannot be traced with certainty. Its application to navigation has been attributed to many people, including the Chinese, Arabs, Greeks and Italians. One thing is sure—its development into a useful and reliable instrument of navigation was the work of Western peoples between the thirteenth and fifteenth centuries.

Just exactly when men began to use gunpowder to propel a missile from a gun barrel is not known. Of course, gunpowder had been used by the Chinese as fireworks for a long time. In the fourteenth century, small crude cannon were used in Europe, and by 1500 A.D. cannon had been developed to such a stage that the old weapons of warfare such as bows and arrows, lances, and armor were passing away. Feudal castles and the walls around many towns became useless under the new type of weapon. As ships sailed to different parts of the world, many were armed with cannon against enemies. The weapon illustrated at the left seems very primitive when compared with the elaborate death-dealing artillery of today.



AN ASTROLABE

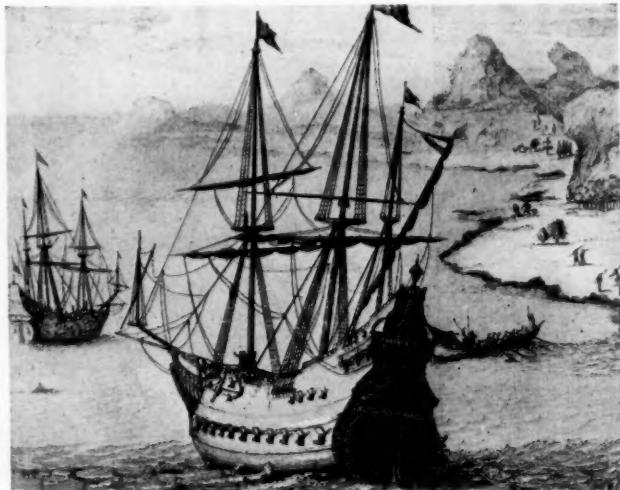
The invention of the astrolabe was another important improvement in navigation which aided in bringing in the Age of Discovery. The term, astrolabe, was used by the Greeks, who applied it to any circular instrument used in astronomy, having one or more graduated circles. The instrument known as the astrolabe was used in navigation about the same time that the compass came into use. With it sailors could measure the position of the heavenly bodies, and therefore calculate distance and direction. Thus, with the aid of the compass and the astrolabe, mariners could determine the position of their ships even when far from land. While it played an important part in navigation for a long time, the astrolabe has been superseded by the sextant.

THE AGE OF DISCOVERY



THE SANTA MARIA

This is a photograph of a ship modeled as far as possible after the Santa Maria (Columbus' flagship). This replica of the famous ship was built in Spain and sailed across the Atlantic Ocean to take part in the 400th anniversary celebration of the voyage of Columbus, which was held in Chicago in 1893. It gives an excellent view of the sail capacity of the vessels of the time of Columbus. The photograph was taken as the vessel entered Hampton Roads, Virginia.



RIBAULT'S EXPEDITION



EARLY DUTCH WAR VESSEL

A Dutch engraving of the landing of John Ribault in Florida, in 1562. Ribault led a French Huguenot colony to Port Royal, South Carolina, in the heart of territory claimed by Spain. Like several other French colonial ventures of this period, it failed.

A Dutch war vessel of the early seventeenth century. Note the long projecting prow, the high stern, and the location of the guns. Reproduced with the permission of the Rudder Publishing Company, New York.

THE AGE OF DISCOVERY



PRE-COLUMBIAN MAP

Improvements in cartography or map-making accompanied the many changes that took place in navigation during the Age of Discovery. Map-makers began to give attention to exact measurements and outlines. Sailing charts were used to illustrate the portolani or books for navigators. The above map was published in the fifteenth century, but was based on the work of Pomponius Mela who lived in the Roman empire in the first century A.D.



ARABIAN MAP

The European map-makers of this period were greatly aided by the work of Arabic cartographers, whose painstaking labors had won respect in Europe. This is a map of the world according to an Arabian of the twelfth century, from a manuscript of the fifteenth century.

Need for Geography in the Social Studies

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The scope of the social studies program would seem by its very name to include those courses which concern human relationships, courses which attempt to point out and explain man as a social being, a member of a complex group.

Human relationships, while conditioned by individual and racial traits of character and motives of behavior, are in a large part due to natural environmental factors.

It is the function of geography to explain and interpret natural environment and man's adjustments to it. It provides a scientific explanation of such facts as how the density of population depends upon factors that are natural, based on physical surroundings.

Without the background provided by geography, the social studies would appear to be based on false premises, illogical, badly-informed and loose, rather than real and concrete. Too often, for instance, do historians appear to consider events as being brought about by voluntary human action apart from the underlying physical causes. Geography enriches the viewpoint and aids in a rational solution of many social problems.

To be worthy of a place in the social studies curriculum, each field of knowledge should offer distinctive contributions to a general understanding of human welfare problems pointing to the eventual solution of such problems.

Certain potential outcomes unique to geography may be summarized to include:

- (1) A systematic compilation of material showing the interrelation of man and his natural environment, with particular emphasis on the occupational adjustment of the former to the conditions of the latter.
- (2) An understanding of the specific uses made of, and possible to make of, natural resources.
- (3) Factual information concerning climate, surface, soil, minerals, water supply, waterpower, petroleum, forests, and other aspects of geography.
- (4) A comprehension of man's efforts to live better in his natural setting.
- (5) Knowledge of the physical setting involved in activities studied in other phases of social study (e.g. history, sociology, economics). A resulting insight into

cause of migrations, human disasters, etc.

- (6) Interpretation of human endeavors through balancing and coördinating factors of place and time.
- (7) Cognizance of interdependence of regions, especially in developing their natural resources and in marketing both raw materials and manufactured goods or finished products. Realization that relative independence in any modern nation begets a static condition and that in general, regional interdependence increases in direct proportion to development in communication, transportation and industrial mechanization.
- (8) Interpretation of international relations
 - (a) by recognizing national needs or desires to control resources,
 - (b) by appreciating the common living problems of inhabitants elsewhere,
 - (c) by replacing an attitude of aggression with one of co-operation as the result of being aware of the rights of others.

(The achievement of such broad ideals is limited by the capacity of teachers to present material without injecting personal bias, and to encourage the pupils to assemble real facts from which they may draw their own conclusions.)
- (9) An awareness that man's utilization of the natural assets of his habitation and his struggles with the natural handicaps directly condition his daily life and mental attitudes.
- (10) A conception of the part played by the natural setting in the evolution of human society.

A knowledge of facts begets ability to interpret and to appreciate man's activities. Such ability is essential to a broad view of human relations throughout the world. If widespread, it is a direct contribution to solving group, national, and international problems.

If the social studies contribute even in a small degree to this end, they will have justified time and place in the curriculum. To be comprehensively reliable and accurate, the social studies require a geographic background. Geography is needed in the social studies program.

What the Northern Neighbor Has Been Thinking

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Canada is two nations within the one confederation. The British-Canadians, 51 per cent of the total population, dominate eight of the nine provinces and attach to themselves such immigrants as can be assimilated, but they are scattered and disunited. The French-Canadians constitute 29 per cent of the population. They dominate Quebec, the largest province in area and the second in population. Compact and united by their blood and their Roman Catholic faith, they maintain their institutions and way of life unchanged on an Anglo-Saxon continent and in an Anglo-Saxon empire.

The British won Acadia in 1713, but could not make the people good British subjects; they finally had to expel them. They won Canada in 1763, but eleven years later they gave up all hope of making the people really British and so in 1774 Parliament passed the Quebec Act which restored the French law and the taxing power of the Roman Catholic Church. Since 1791, when the province was granted a legislative assembly, all its debates have been in French and since 1867 the entire executive including the official representative of the king has been French. The rights of the province have been as well preserved as those of the states of the United States. The present premier of Quebec, Duplessis, leads a new party in Canadian politics, the Union Nationale, made to keep French Canada for the French-Canadians. At Ottawa, the federal capital, Quebec has a disproportionately large number of seats in the Senate and in the lower house the French have always been strong because they form themselves into a solid bloc. One of them was premier of Canada for eleven years, four or five of them are in every cabinet of either national party and they always fill their share of places in the Supreme Court. Their power is so great that three of the non-French provinces exempt Roman Catholics from the taxes of the public school system and allow them special taxes to support their own separate schools run by the Church. The French have large, healthy families, like the Dionnes, and since the depression there has been little immigration to help the British keep the balance. Some day Canada might conceivably be almost all French.

The French first settled on this continent in 1604. Seven years later a few survivors were scattered in the woods, having been struck by an attack from the young colony of Virginia. So for over 150 years the struggle was fought. England—Protestant and Parliamentary, with free institutions—found its natural enemy in France—Catholic, despotic, centralized. These countries are now natural and firm friends. But in North America the peoples fought with more bitter intensity and some of the deep antagonisms remain. New England was Protestant of the Protestant and New York and Philadelphia were the most tolerant towns of the world in their early days, while New France was wholly the faithful child of the Church. There was not a single Protestant allowed in the colony; priests brought out many of the colonists. Priests led the way in exploration. The parish church was the only real center of social life in the countryside and in the towns, priests and nuns provided the only education and hospitals. The bishop of Quebec was the equal of the governor.

Under the alien British flag the Church has not lost, but gained power. It has been its people's only real national institution, receiving their full devotion and contributions. The educational system, which as elsewhere has been made universal in the last century, is from kindergarten to university in the hands of the Church. European governments even in Catholic countries seized the great properties of the Jesuits when the order was temporarily disbanded, but in 1888 the government of Quebec paid the restored order \$400,000 of the public money in compensation. It is said that the Church owns a quarter of the real estate in Montreal.

Now the Church goes into battle against Americanization. The movies, the magazines, cocktails, jazz, one-piece bathing suits, birth control—all appear to it the manifestations of the Mammon of materialism that flourishes in the United States. In November, 1937, the movie of the "Life of Emile Zola" and the magazine *Coronet* were under ban in Quebec. The growth of the Roman Catholic element in the United States since the great Irish immigration has not produced friendliness because the Catholics of the United States are mainly on the liberal

wing of the Church and at the Vatican Council of 1870, for instance, hesitated to endorse the infallibility of the Pope while the Canadian delegate was an extreme Papalist.

The United States from the time of colonization has been the happy land of individualists, especially in commercial enterprise. The virgin continent offered endless opportunities, for example, selling to the Iroquois guns to be used on the French. New France on the other hand was like a well disciplined army. No scattered homesteads existed, but rows of cottages along the banks of the St. Lawrence. The settlers had been planted by the king's government and over each group was set a lord who collected his rents, presided over the local court and commanded in war. The overlords paid homage to the governor who represented the king and did services for him. All external trade was in the hands of companies to which the king granted monopolies and domestic markets, prices, manufactures, every detail was minutely supervised by royal officials. Passive obedience was the rule. The few that showed enough initiative to escape and trade independently with the Indians were frowned upon as deserters. The old feudal and royal restraints and restrictions have at length disappeared; it has not been the French, but the British Canadians who have abolished them. The latter, along with the Americans, have developed the industry, the finance, the prairies and the external trade of Canada; the control of business and the resulting wealth are almost wholly in their hands. The business man, the typical American or British-Canadian, is utterly alien to the French, who perhaps secretly fear and envy his wealthier standards.

In 1775 the Continental Congress invited the Canadians to throw off the yoke of the king over the water, to join them in a free republic, and to send an army to help them. The invitation was warmly welcomed at Montreal by the few English-speaking merchants, but the native Canadians were sullenly indifferent. Though France itself was the ally of the revolutionaries, New France was too monarchist not to look askance at a republic. Most of the population was too ignorant to care about such things; a few of the upper class even tried to raise troops to fight against revolutionary principles.

Again in 1812 the United States offered to free the Canadians. This time they met active opposition. The "habitant" is a quiet fellow, but he saw in the American invasion an attempt to open for exploitation the lands that he wanted to save for his own posterity. So he fought. The British allegiance was confirmed with blood.

After the Civil War the great armies seemed to see a good chance to fulfill the Manifest Destiny of occupying the whole continent. The Fenians made their raids across the border. To protect themselves

the French-Canadians were willing to sacrifice the privileged position that they then held in politics and joined in the confederation of all the British North American colonies, the present Canada, in which they had to expect to be a minority forever.

In 1911 the Reciprocity Agreement was negotiated between Canada and the United States. The French would have benefited and actually favored it, but because the government that happened to be responsible for it was not in its policy French enough for the French-Canadians, they aided to cause its downfall and the defeat of the agreement.

The World War might have been expected to arouse the enthusiasm of the French-Canadians and did indeed produce a splendid effort, but not nearly so great proportionally as in the rest of the empire or the United States. They clearly showed their isolation from the rest of the allies. Naturally they could not sympathize with the imperialistic fervor of their fellow British subjects, for their loyalty was merely passive. Neither did they share the American enthusiasm for the land of Lafayette. Republican France with its tradition of Voltaire and Rousseau, anti-clericalism, and "gay Paris," seems like an older brother that has gone astray, regarded affectionately but most disapprovingly.

One of the sequels of the World War, the Abyssinian crisis, illustrates the same attitude. When fifty nations including Britain and France had imposed sanctions on Italy and the American President was preparing to coöperate by the Neutrality Act, the official Canadian delegate at Geneva suggested in a sub-committee that oil should not be sold to Italy, but so strong was the feeling in Canada especially among the French against any entanglement that might lead to war that the government repudiated the suggestion of its own delegate.

In 1937 the C.I.O. had been making some attempts to organize French-Canadian labor, previously little organized at all. Nationalist instincts should have responded since the capitalists are so often English-speaking. But in fact it has had little success because it is alien, smacking of revolution, atheism and the communists. In reaction, a French-Canadian fascist party has been forming.

This has had a very curious result, that much of the current talk of Canada's joining the Pan-American Union is in Quebec. Perhaps this is a sign of warmer friendliness, but more probably it is due to recent developments in South America where people now feel stronger against the influence of the United States and in some countries the fascist friends of authority in Church and State have seized power. Such countries would make good allies against Americanization.

Yet human nature does change. A million French-Canadians are American citizens who, though looked

upon as deserters, cannot be without influence on the folks at home. American cars drive along the highways of the province, built to attract tourists. Personally the "habitant" is a very friendly, unaggressive fellow and as he realizes that others are the same his prejudices will vanish.

Usually when Canada is spoken of, an American will imagine a land of English-speaking people like himself who happen to live north of the Great Lakes and are accidentally British subjects. In Canada as in the United States, those of British descent are the largest group and dominate the country by their wealth if nothing else, and the two countries should by nature be colleagues.

Yet historically, the very founding of British Canada was an act of violent hatred towards the United States. During the War of Independence the Loyalists suffered—as doubtless they would gladly have made their opponents suffer—confiscation of property, tarring and feathering, being ridden out of town on a rail, and the chance of being hanged as spies. Some 50,000 left their homes to endure years of desperate hardship in the Canadian wilderness making new homes, which was especially severe for the many accustomed to the easier life of the cities. By the treaty they were promised compensation, but they never received it. If the victors kept a tradition of bitterness, as always, the defeated were more bitter still.

The constitution of Upper Canada framed for them by the British government was to be the antithesis of the former colonial constitutions which had produced revolt, the salaries of the executive were to be independent of the assembly which was also to be limited in power by an upper house composed, it was intended, of hereditary aristocrats like the House of Lords. Vast grants of land were made to the privileged few and wide tracts were set aside to endow the Church of England in Canada. This suited well enough the army officers, royal officials and Episcopalian clergy who were a large proportion of the Tories, so that in 1812 the well knit little colonies successfully resisted an army as large as their own total population. Canadians regarded the war as an unprovoked aggression by the United States and were long inclined to keep the memory of it alive for the special reason that in their fight against the Americans the two races of the country were for once united in a common cause, a common hostility which unfortunately is so often the basis of a country's unity. Sedulously the Loyalists cultivated British institutions and criticism of the governing clique was treated almost as if it were treason.

But British Canada could never keep the consistency that French Canada did because immigrants came in, constantly changing the character of the population. Irishmen coming out in the "Hungry

Forties," or dispossessed Scotch and English peasants, had precious little cause to feel devoted to the British connection. Americans, as their frontier steadily advanced, had come into the fertile lands of Upper Canada and after the short interruption of the war the movement was resumed. Above all as the colony had its separate existence fundamentally only for the sake of loyalty to the Britain of the Tories, the ascendancy at home of liberal ideas and the Whigs after 1832 turned Canada adrift along the same stream as the United States. The British government on its own behalf and on Canada's, cultivated the friendship of its neighbor, concluding the Rush-Bagot agreement to keep the Great Lakes without armaments, supporting the Monroe Doctrine, and peaceably settling the Maine-New Brunswick and the Oregon boundaries, so that the wind was taken out of the sails of hotheads on both sides of the border. It also abolished the old colonial system, freeing British and colonial ports to the trade of the whole world and, since colonies would lose their old use as reserved markets, allowing them greater self-government in preparation for political independence. The Navigation Acts were repealed and Canada lost its tariff preferences in the British market.

With a new kind of population and a new policy in Britain, Canadians looked south with less prejudice. Parallel to the rise of Jacksonian democracy was a revolution in Canadian society. The settlers of the rural districts struggled to wrest power from the petty aristocracy of the Loyalists who retorted by accusing them of being "un-British" and "American." Naturally the reformers tended to look towards the United States as their model and when by the uncompromising stiffness of the conservatives they were driven to an unsuccessful rebellion it was there that they took refuge and received even a little active help, thus further provoking the Loyalists against the United States. But when the British government stepped in, it smoothed things over with Secretary of State Webster and then by steady steps granted all that the reformers wanted. At one point a ludicrously paradoxical state of affairs was reached. When the assembly passed a bill which virtually compensated rebels for their losses in the rebellion, and the governor true to the new principles of colonial self-government of the liberal British administration that appointed him signed the bill automatically, he was stoned by the Tories themselves who also burned down the Parliament buildings and, as Britain by repealing the Navigation Acts had just swept away the special privileges that the colonies had had in the British market, they even went so far as to sign in large numbers a manifesto urging annexation by the United States. The upshot was the amalgamation of the opposing sides in Canada and a

Reciprocity Treaty with the United States, followed by the beginning of a tariff wall against Britain itself. It still remains difficult to interpret Canadian feelings of those days, but one may surmise that the liberals of the country inherited an American sympathy.

The American Civil War, however, helped to give a new turn to Canadian history. Though Canada had been the destination of the Underground Railway and many volunteers from the British North American colonies went to fight on the Northern side, yet the earlier British sympathy for the South, the *Alabama* and the *Trent* affairs, the number of Irish in the Northern armies and at the end of the war the vindictiveness of the North were a serious menace to anything British. The Reciprocity Treaty was abrogated and Canada seemed friendless. So for external reasons, and stronger internal reasons, a Confederation of all British North America was formed and steadily developed its own national spirit, with national parties, national railways, national tariffs. Thereafter, while the sentiments of loyalty to Britain and of varying hostility to or sympathy with the United States remained, more and more the independent nationalism of the country itself rose, independent of both greater nations. For Britain, the Canadian government offered imperial preferences in its markets but severely rejected the suggestion of a central imperial council to draw the empire closer politically. In the South African War, Canada raised and equipped volunteers, but would not pay their maintenance at the front. During the naval race with Germany the Canadian government proposed to provide Britain with two battleships, but when the Senate rejected the bill they let the matter drop. In the World War Canada's contingent was a part of the British army in the field, but at the end the Dominion insisted on virtual independence not only for internal affairs but for external as well. They are separate members of the League of Nations, have their own legations at foreign capitals, negotiate their own foreign treaties and reserve the right not to ratify treaties negotiated by the British government. The wave of Imperialist sentiment that produced the Ottawa Trade Agreements in 1932 was somewhat superficial. The agreements were matters of horse-trading and sometimes caused more bad feeling than good. Persistently the Dominion has sought equality which has been won peaceably through the ready compliance of the mother country which realistically has valued friendships more than formal dependence.

The young nation became painfully self-conscious, especially when facing its gigantic neighbor from which millions of capital and goods were streaming in. Canadians were inordinately proud of their small

part in the South African War because they fancied it showed them before the world as a grown-up nation. The Alaska boundary award though not on the whole unfair made them very bitter because they suspected that they had been victimized by one or both of the great powers involved. The proposed Reciprocity Agreement of 1911 which would have been very beneficial to Canada was defeated quite largely because an indiscreet American senator mentioned in the campaign that he looked forward to seeing Canada annexed by the United States. But whatever the self-conscious feelings, subconsciously a thousand threads were binding the two countries together—until 1914.

More than anything else Americans are likely to be ignorant of what Canadians think of them and the World War, because Canadians do not mention it to them. A believer in Anglo-Saxon coöperation can make no greater mistake than to refer to that war in Canada. It was the real birth of the Canadian nation and the people are immensely proud of their part in it. Far from liking the Americans as allies, they stress the feature of it that distinguishes them from their neighbors—Canada enlisted three years earlier. Canadian cartoons pictured Uncle Sam first as a cowardly profiteer and then as a shallow braggart claiming to have won the war himself. If this was ingratitude, it may be forgiven or forgotten for the sake of the sufferings that the smaller nation endured.

In the sequel to the war such feelings continued, for membership in the League, being an opportunity for the young nation to express its individuality, was yet another score on which Canadians could pride themselves while despising what they considered was the selfish isolationism of the United States. On the question of war debts that caused so much futile bitterness Canadian opinion was sharply opposed to American, for Canada was to some extent one of the debtors.

But now that is the past. The post-war period we say is ended. Debts and the League are dead hopes, it seems, and a more appalling, more vivid dream than that of a war past invades our imaginations. As foreign nations seem ever more foreign and strange, the thousand threads that bind Canada to her neighbor—trade, finance, travel, culture, society, common inheritance, and common geographical position—stand out more clearly by comparison. Since 1935 there has been a new Reciprocity Treaty between them, and now Canada is willing, for the sake of an Anglo-American trade treaty, to surrender its own special privileges in the British market. As the storm blows up outside the smaller brother snuggles closer to the bigger, talking hopefully of the ties of blood, for they lie on the same bed.

The World's Mightiest Naval Station

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Out of what was once several thousand acres of jungle land, Great Britain has built during the past fifteen years the world's mightiest naval station. Singapore is the cornerstone of Britain's eastern empire; the Gibraltar of the Far East; the keystone of the whole Imperial system.

Singapore as a Malay kingdom existed during the thirteenth century. In the great war between the Javanese kingdom of Majapahit and the Malay kingdom of Palembang, Singapore was completely destroyed towards the end of the fourteenth century.

The modern history of Singapore dates from the year 1819 when Sir Stamford Raffles, fighting British parliamentary opposition, purchased the island for the East India Company from the Sultan of Johore for the paltry sum of 65,000 dollars.

In 1876 rubber seeds smuggled out of Brazil gave start to nine trees. Today nearly 3,000 acres of Malaya are planted in rubber. Three-fourths of all the world's rubber comes from this region.

Singapore, built on a tiny island of the same name, lies only $1^{\circ} 15'$ north of the equator. It is the capital of the Straits Settlements. This crown colony includes the islands of Singapore and Penang as well as Malacca, the Dindings and Province Wellesley on the mainland. The Straits Settlements together with the Malay States constitute British Malaya. The governor of Singapore is also high commissioner for the Malay States. The whole of British Malaya is but 464 miles from north to south, and nowhere is it more than 216 miles wide.

This most southern extremity of the continent of Asia was selected to be the guardian of British interests in the East because it was the sole point from which the outlying dominions could be defended and protected. Singapore stands on the one safe navigable channel—the twenty-five mile wide Straits of Malacca—between the China Sea and the Bay of Bengal. It is a constant reminder to Japan that India, Australia and New Zealand are part of the British empire.

During the past fifteen years the British have poured 150,000,000 dollars into the naval base and military airport at Singapore. The cost will not be entirely borne by the British taxpayer, however, for Hong Kong, Australia and New Zealand have agreed to contribute their share in return for the protection which the base will furnish them.

A huge floating dry dock transported from England has been installed. It required eight immense ocean going tugs three months to tow it to its base. Millions of tons of oil, great quantities of munition and food caches are in reserve. The underground storage tanks are capable of holding enough oil and ammunition to last a large fleet for at least six months.

A causeway connects the island of Singapore with the mainland. On the heights which guard the harbor there are fifteen-inch guns that have a twenty-mile range. The airdrome houses a fleet of the most modern planes of the Royal Air Force. Anti-aircraft guns protect the island from bombers, while mines and submarines guard the port. However, Singapore could be bombed. Nearly every day there are clouds in which the enemy planes could hide. The base would be defenseless against a gas attack. The island is low and the climate is favorable for it. In case of such an attack the gas would hang around for days.

A large new prison is prepared to take care of spies. The construction of its expansive quarters was in part due to the fact that Japan has spies working throughout the Far East. In Singapore they are often found in photographic supply work. They have plenty of time to go about and take pictures. It is generally believed that they are agents of the Japanese army.

Although it is 6,500 miles to London via the Suez Canal, Singapore is kept in hourly contact with the Home Office by the most powerful wireless in the world. She guards the great sea route from Europe to India and Australia against aggression from the East. Free passage through the Mediterranean is imperative. It is here that Mussolini, ever since his victory in Ethiopia, has threatened the British Empire.

Germany threatens the entire Imperial system in the demand for the return of her oversea possessions. If Germany gets back her African colonies, the first thing she might do would be to establish submarine and air bases in them. She will threaten British commerce all along the coasts of Africa.

Singapore is the one logical port of call for all ships plying between Europe and the Orient. The very location of the city has given England a monopoly on most of that trade. Last year 45,000 vessels

passed through the harbor, and 33,000 of them took on cargo.

But during the past few years, Japan has threatened to destroy the monopoly of that trade. Her pride has been wounded by Britain's giant fortifications. Today she threatens the Gibraltar of the Far East from a dozen different angles. She is moving toward Singapore from every possible center with a fixed determination to isolate the city and reduce its strategic value.

The undeclared war in the Orient is a part of Japan's five point program for the control of Asia. She accomplished her first aim when she entered Manchuria in 1931. Her second objective—the conquest of Shanghai, Nanking and the Yangtse Valley—has been realized during the present conflict. The remainder of her program calls for the control of Canton, French Indo-China and India.

Japan has long been friendly with Siam. Of all the countries represented in the League of Nations, only Siam voted in favor of Japan and against the League's resolution regarding Manchuria. Japan's influence in Siam has increased since the abdication of King Prajadhipok three years ago. Phya Bahol Bolabuha Sena, who engineered the abdication, is commander-in-chief of the army. The military and naval forces of Siam have been trained largely in Japan; and they favor closer friendship with that country and curtailment of British influence.

Under the present regime, Siam's trade with Japan has increased one hundred fold. It is understood that Tokyo has offered to dig a canal across the Isthmus of Kra in Siamese territory. Should this canal become a reality, it would be of enormous

value to Japanese power and trade. It would lessen the distance from Japan and China to Calcutta and Bombay. It would shorten the route from the Far East to Europe. How much effect it would have upon the commercial and naval importance of Singapore is of real concern to the British Empire. Singapore would still have a large trade with Australia and New Zealand. But would she be able to stop the Japanese fleet from sailing through the Kra canal into the Indian Ocean?

Last year iron deposits were discovered in Malaya. Japanese interests are deeply entrenched there.

Japan has been making hostile moves in the Dutch East Indies. She would like to get the oil fields of Borneo and thus have a base near Singapore. Tokyo is 3,300 miles from the Straits Settlements. The Japanese territory nearest to Singapore is Formosa, some 1,800 miles away. In case of war Japan would need a much nearer refueling station and source of supplies than is offered in Formosa.

The Japanese have been penetrating the Philippine Islands. Japan is almost certain to seize them as soon as the United States gives them full independence.

When Great Britain held her naval maneuvers at Singapore last February, the United States was the only foreign country represented. At that time Great Britain and the United Netherlands came to an agreement whereby the Dutch would permit Singapore to use their oil in return for British protection of the Dutch colonies against Japanese aggression.

How long will Singapore be able to withstand the inroads of Japan? How long will she remain the Gibraltar of the Far East—the mightiest naval station of the world?

News and Comment

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DEFENDING DEMOCRACY

Twenty years ago the triumphant war-cry, "Make the world safe for democracy," thrilled millions. In many lands today the cry is but the wail of a lost cause. In this country—birthplace of freedom—measures to beat off the protagonists of dictatorship are called for, and teachers are asked to publish to the children of the nation the blessings of liberty. A movement has crystallized "to interpret American education in terms of democracy and . . . American democracy in terms of education." Professor George A. Coe, recently retired from Teachers College, Columbia University, views its growth in the issue of *School and Society* for June 11, 1938, under the

heading, "Emergent Democracy—1932-1938."

The depression, with its drastic cut in opportunities for education offered to the rising generation, its widespread teacher-baiting through such devices as loyalty oaths and heresy hunting, modern style, its implication of unsoundness in the socio-economic structure, magnified the fears in America that dictatorship whose agents were busy on every continent was sapping democracy's vitals. Defenders of the democratic faith have fashioned a platform of at least ten principles upon which to base operations for the protection of our democratic heritage at its chief line of defense, the nation's schools. Dr. Coe inspects this platform with the observant eye of a

reporter. His findings, in brief, are:

1. Education continues to accept and favor the democratic principle in our national life and opposes "the aristocratic or 'special privilege' element."

2. Democracy is not identical with a frame of government; the structure and power of the state are secondary, forming a means to the ends of the democratic society.

3. "The coöperative application of intelligence to common interests" is basic in a democracy. Open discussion, therefore, must be fostered as the instrument to aid intelligence to achieve united action. For that purpose, free education is the indispensable prerequisite. Free education, not mere training, is the essential. Such education "values individual unlikeness as well as likeness, causes persons to compare notes, observe together, think together and thus change themselves by discovery and release of themselves."

4. In a democracy the teacher is neither ruler, policeman, nor enforcer of policies of the current government, as dictatorship prescribes. The teacher is he who guides free citizens to open their minds to an understanding of their community and to an appreciation of its values and shortcomings.

5. The process of democratic education and the process of democratic citizenship are, essentially, one process. Consequently universal education includes everyone, and not the children only. "The school is the appropriate center for bringing to a focus the whole self-transformation by thinking that is the mark of democratic society."

6. "Democracy and democratic education are inherently productive of change in both persons and their environment."

7. Education must keep the democratic process alive and growing, but it does not engage in social engineering. The curriculum is determined by existing human relations and the level of living. "The focal point of teaching is values rather than mere facts," while technical and professional training must be also training for social service.

8. Liberty is more than the free communication of ideas. It also determines the ways in which the nation's resources shall be used. It is neither free nor democratic for the individual to possess and to use the resources of a nation as though he lived unto himself alone. "Democratic education will be consciously directed toward democratic control and use of natural resources." Liberty of teaching implies freedom to analyze economic conduct no less than political conduct.

9. Teachers must be professional persons trained to serve in a progressive democracy. Teaching techniques, accordingly, take a subordinate place to "social knowledge, insight, experience in democratic living and participation in the promotion thereof."

10. The present monarchical organization of the school must give way to a democratic one.

This body of principles forms a material contribution, although, in the presence of the traditional laissez-faire philosophy of American business, it includes items which the traditional individualist will label Red and not democratic. Dr. Coe suggests going even farther and including in the platform several principles as guides for action on some pertinent problems which are only beginning to receive attention. Among these problems are (1) "The social significance of higher education." (2) "The relation of ecclesiastical authority to democratic education." Should a dual authority be recognized? Has the church a sphere within which it is inviolable? Or does the democratic idea of the coöperative application of intelligence to common interest apply to all social institutions? (3) The modern problem of class conflict, rooted chiefly in economic distinctions, where the basic relation of employer and employee, of owner and non-owner, is not democratic.

Educational literature confirms at many points Dr. Coe's observation that renewed, active interest is being taken to cultivate the democratic way of life. Writing on "Reflective Thinking in Social Studies and in Science" (*Progressive Education*, April, 1938) A. N. Zechiel and S. P. McCutchen, members of the Curriculum Staff of the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association, view educational needs in this changing world from the democratic standpoint. What knowledge the adolescents of today will need as the men and women of tomorrow is not predictable. Therefore it is the duty of the secondary school to "develop students who can think intelligently or scientifically; who are concerned for the welfare of others; who can participate effectively; and who have rich, many-sided personalities." There is need for coupling intelligent thinking and effective social participation in all aspects of life in a democratic society.

What are the ways and means for developing students who can think scientifically and democratically? In the social studies they favor giving students practice in defining and describing problems in school in order to learn how to do that in the world outside of school, practice in searching out and trying out solutions and gathering data needed to judge effectiveness of solutions, and practice in applying or using conclusions and decisions. By way of illustration the procedure in the Clayton High School, Missouri, is quoted. Students, there, worked in great problem areas such as crime, international relations, and labor, rather than with organized bodies of textbook material in history or economics or government.

It is of interest to note that Pennsylvania is now suggesting this idea of areas of experience as the basis for courses of study and to recall that other

states such as Virginia have been experimenting with it. Present trends in the curriculum are summarized in the *Bulletin* of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the N.E.A. for April, 1938. For instance, J. P. Leonard, in "Curriculum Building in the Secondary School," points out the principal features of three approaches now in wide use and gives examples from different parts of the country. H. J. Linton, in "Fusion Course in Social Studies," describes an experiment in Schenectady, New York, which falls under the second approach presented by Professor Leonard. Perhaps because of the timeliness of its warning during curriculum tinkering, this issue of the *Bulletin* includes F. T. Spaulding's "Interest in Learning." Professor Spaulding deals very concretely with the matter of developing interest by the teacher as a concomitant of learning and not merely as a motivation for learning.

A staunch defender of democracy's schools for more than a generation and one of the wisest of America's school men is Professor Charles H. Judd of the University of Chicago. His recent remarks at Atlantic City on "Specialization, the Bane of Secondary Education" (*School and Society*, March 26, 1938), are worth recalling, both for the democratic flavor of his thought and for the trend in secondary education which he prophesies. He expressed the fear that the tendency toward specialization in secondary education would "make our students like ourselves—narrow-minded. Narrow-mindedness is a trait which is sharply to be contrasted with intellectual flexibility or plasticity," so badly needed in this modern world. Our schools have long insisted upon conformity, fixed standards, and have curbed the insatiable curiosity of youth. Children have come to believe that regularity and set performance, characterizes the world. While it is true that many things in life require conformity to standards, the schools must recognize and accept the newer duty of preparing "the products of the schools to live in a world which demands for success a high degree of adaptability, or willingness and capacity to abandon all accepted standards and meet new situations with new forms of behavior." High schools do not need specialists primarily and there has been too much stress laid upon specialization in the training of secondary-school teachers. Specialization is important, of course, but it is mentally narrowing. The social need at present is for plasticity and flexibility. To that end new experiences contribute greatly. The interests of pupils should not be suppressed and curiosity in new experiences should be kept alive. Survey courses which break away from specialization help to stimulate curiosity and interest.

In the same issue of *School and Society*, in "The Organization and Subject-Matter of Secondary Education," President Hutchins of the University of Chi-

cago agrees with Dr. Judd. He urges that the traditional high school be converted into the junior college and that the baccalaureate degree be given to those who graduate from it. He would make the secondary-school course general in character and reserve specialization for the university level. General education would, then, absorb the attention of students until they were twenty years of age. The high school would become in fact what it already has been labelled—the college of the American people.

Germane to this survey is the Social Studies Number of the *Teachers College Record* (March, 1938). Prominent teachers in the field and members of the staff of Teachers College contributed a timely series of articles whose scope is shown by the following titles: Public Support for a Social Studies Program; We Need Better Social Studies Teachers; American Intellectual History in the Secondary Schools; What Economic Information Is of Most Worth? Human Ecology—a New Social Science; Living in a Machine Age; Opening the Way for an Understanding of Modern Problems.

The foregoing invites stock-taking at the beginning of the school year, but it necessarily is far from complete in its scope. A recent bibliography should prove helpful. In *School Life* for June, 1938, the official organ of the national Office of Education, Professors Howard E. Wilson and Wilbur F. Murra present a selected bibliography on the teaching of the social studies. References are included of a general nature as well as on objectives, curriculum, equipment, methods, and testing.

THE POISON CALLED HISTORY?

Mr. H. G. Wells has an ever-restless mind that is a perennial goad. The times are calling, he holds, for a new history. In the *Survey Graphic* for June, 1938, he declares that teachers of history should turn from the study of isolated groups of facts in this part of the world or that, in this century or that. Such divisions are necessary for the historian, but not for the teacher of history. It is from that kind of history, with its eye to the past and mind upon this people or that, that the poisons of nationalism are brewed. It is an artificiality, carefully taught to each new generation.

The new sort of history stems from recent biological thought. It is an evolutionary study of all the human race and not the study of isolated sections and artificial periods. To get rid of the old meanings which poison each new generation, history may be re-named human ecology or social biology. The new history has an anticipatory quality, for it possesses the scientific quality of searching for causes behind the facade of events and with impartiality sees the world whole and thinks of it as a whole.

Mr. Wells suggests possible lines of attack in transforming old history into new. For example, the story of communication is the story of the gradual welding of separate sub-human family groups into the unified world of people which can now be envisaged. Although all history seems against it, nationalism and internationalism will have to give way before cosmopolitanism because all reality is for it. Similarly, particularism, the sentimentality of nationalism, must give way before the sweep opened up by the study of the evolution of communication, of implements, and their consequences. Such a study is superior to that of Greek history or English history or medieval history.

"If you choose to look at reality, you can see the things that arise out of iron, from the first iron spearhead and the first axe to the steel rail, the battleship and the motor, tempting and obliging and compelling men to change their ways of life and their relations to one another. There were no particular iron-minded peoples. It was a matter of quite secondary importance . . . what collection of people first got hold of the new thing. In any hands it did the same thing. Iron is still ruling us, because we are so silly in our history-made politics that we cannot rule iron." Similar historical forces are found in the story of boats, the wheel, the domestication of animals, road-making, language, and other basic causes which mould human actions.

The histories of national states, the "poisoned histories," will not turn the world from its evil courses. It is useless to base world peace upon the old history which sustains "the old worn-out story of personified Britannias, Germanias, Holy Russias and so forth, meritorious races and chosen people. And this League of Nations, this little bit of a paper hat on top, not of a Colossus but of a squirming heap of discordant patriotisms, is only a last desperate attempt to carry on the old patchwork of nationalist ideas into a new world that has no wholesome use for them. . . . If the young Hercules of a new world is to live, its first feat must be to strangle the tangled coil of poisonous old histories in its cradle."

GEOGRAPHY

At the beginning of the school year the material in the geography number of *Educational Method* (March, 1938) is helpful. Included among a dozen articles are a discussion of trends in geography teaching today, diagnostic studies of such teaching, and descriptions of visual and other aids in the field.

Early in October the National Geographic Society resumed publication of *Geographic News Bulletins*, five to the weekly set, for thirty weeks of the school year. They are designed for the use of teachers, librarians, and college and normal school students. The bulletins give timely information, in word and

picture, about costumes and customs, boundary changes, explorations, geographic developments, new industries, and world progress. Their only cost is postage.

Professor Ramsay Traquair of McGill University wrote a lively article for the August issue of *Atlantic Monthly* on "Architecture and Geography." He views architecture as a mirror of climatic conditions as well as of the civilization of a people and draws illustrations of his thesis from the history of all ages. His sensitive eye is highly critical of imitations in one age and climate of the architectural creations of another. He sees art as dependent upon local conditions and the local mores, and he does not believe that the architecture of one age or people is better than all others. There is genuine value in indigenous art, and individuality in the architecture of a people is precious to all mankind. Professor Traquair's remarks are as edifying as they are spirited.

CIVICS AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Students of government should not miss Marc A. Rose's "States Get Together," in *Current History* of May, 1938. Mr. Rose reviews the purposes, activities, and organization of Cosgo or the Council of State Governments which was established in 1935. The Council is devising machinery to facilitate coöperation between the states and has established its secretariat or permanent headquarters in Chicago. Commissions have been set up to study common problems—crime, flood control, highway safety, game, and the like.

This little advertised democratic development in the states may prove to be an important movement. The youth of today should know about it. Mr. Rose's article presents at its close "The Declaration of Independence of the Governments Within the United States of America," which was signed in January, 1937, by the representatives of the states on the Council of State Governments.

"Milk for Millions" has been concluded in *Consumers' Guide*. The series of nine articles appeared in the issues of August 9 and 23, September 6, October 18, November 1 and 15, 1937, and January 17 and 31, and June 6-20, 1938. All aspects of the subject were discussed—the production and the distribution of milk products, laws and supervision of dairying, health aspects, consumers' interests, and the social problem of milk. The material should be useful especially with classes in civics.

The series of monthly articles issued this year by the National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior, forms a welcome addition to the supplementary material available on the subject of the conservation of our natural resources. Biographical sketches of "Celebrated Conservationists and Naturalists in Our National Parks" feature the

series, including such men as Alexander Wilson, John James Audubon, and Constantine Samuel Rafinesque.

"How Long Should a U. S. President Hold Office?" This question is the topic of the *Congressional Digest* for May, 1938. Included in the presentation are such matters as the constitutional aspects of the question, efforts to change the length of the presidential term since 1800, the views of Presidents from Washington to F. D. Roosevelt, public opinion as revealed in recent polls, and a pro and con debate on the question.

The September issue of the *Congressional Digest* was the annual debate number and dealt with the N.U.E.A. debate topic for the current school year, "Should the United States Establish an Alliance with Great Britain?" Not only are arguments presented, pro and con, but also facts and items of news which bear upon the question.

RADIO AND EDUCATION

The Educational Radio Script Exchange of the national Office of Education has been contributing greatly to the development of education through radio. In the last two years it has supplied scripts for more than 3,000 radio programs produced by schools in nearly every state of the union. The purpose of the Exchange is to further the work of the Federal Radio Education Committee. Among the nearly 200 radio scripts listed in the *Script Catalogue* are many in the fields of history, current events, economics, safety, civil liberties, and international relations as well as such other fields as science, music and literature. The Historical Series includes dramatized interviews with Washington, Franklin, Napoleon, and other celebrities, the signing of the Declaration of Independence, and similar noted events. To aid in production, the Script Exchange issues a *Handbook of Sound Effects* which provides instruction in the methods of creating sound effects, a *Radio Manual* which instructs in the general production of a program, and a *Radio Glossary* which defines the commonly used radio terms.

In June, 1936, the United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. John W. Studebaker, stated before the Federal Communications Commission that the use of ultra-high radio frequencies was of incalculable value to education since it put mass communication at the service of schools where it can do as much for education and democracy as it did for business (see H. A. Jager, "Wisdom Sent by Short Wave," in *The Nation's Schools* for April, 1938). In January, 1938 the Commission announced that twenty-five ultra-high frequency radio channels had been assigned for educational use. Such frequencies have only local range, effective reception being restricted to distances less than fifty miles. Many different

states, in this country, could use the same frequency, and well over a thousand educational broadcasting stations could operate at once. These short wave frequencies do not interfere with those now on the air. Costs are not great and the great engineering problems have been mastered. The radio, perhaps with television and the talking book, may be closer than we suspect, disclosing the dawn of a major revolution.

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

Interpreting its school system to the community and fostering friendly helpfulness in tackling mutual problems are needs as pressing as ever. American Education Week, which falls this year on November 6-12, is sponsored by the N.E.A., the United States Office of Education, and the American Legion. Its theme is, Education for Tomorrow's America. From the theme spring the seven daily topics:

- Achieving the Golden Rule
- Developing Strong Bodies and Able Minds
- Mastering Skills and Knowledge
- Attaining Values and Standards
- Accepting New Civic Responsibilities
- Holding Fast to Our Ideals of Freedom
- Gaining Security for All

The N.E.A. is trying a new plan this year in preparing materials for celebrating American Education Week. In place of the packets of handbook and manuals on all topics of the week, the materials on each day's topic are being placed in one folder of five or six thousand words, with different packets for the school levels, kindergarten-primary, upper elementary, high school, rural school, and teachers college.

IN THE SUMMER MAGAZINES

Sectionalism in the United States seems to flourish unimpaired by the forces which weld the American people more and more closely together. Dr. F. E. Melder made one of the most complete studies of the growth of a new sectionalism in *State and Local Barriers to Interstate Commerce in the United States*. He discusses the question in an article on "Economic War Among Our States," in *Events* for August, 1938. In the issue of *Fortune* for the same month Dr. R. L. Buell, president of the Foreign Policy Association, takes up the same question, under the title, "Death by Tariff." Devious methods are being used more and more widely in this country to protect local industries against competition not only from foreign nations but from their neighbors across state boundaries. What we have been taught to regard as a free market in this country seems to be on the road to extinction. To encourage the establishment of new industries, to increase the size of those now small, to protect those already firmly established, and to

protect local labor, licenses, inspection and other fees, quarantines and other sanitary regulations and restrictions, excises, tariffs by whatever name they may be disguised, the regulation of truck traffic, discriminatory taxes, bounties such as free power, free land, and tax exemptions, and other devices have been put into use by state authorities, as well as by national. Much of this is at the expense of the national welfare. Both Dr. Buell and Dr. Melder cite a wide variety of practices actually in use throughout the country. Can the problems of local welfare be truly solved by measures injurious to the general welfare? Dr. Buell intimates that a solution may be found in collectivism or in a competitive low-price economy.

In *Harpers Magazine* for July and August G. R. Leighton's "Omaha, Nebraska" is a fascinating historical sketch of the destruction of the agrarian West by laissez faire and finance capitalism. In his dramatic biography of a city, the villains are wholly bad and the poor heroes appear as saints. But his account is a thumb-nail sketch of the workings of major forces in our history since the middle of the nineteenth century. One is reminded of the old adage that "Hell is paved with good intentions." The inevitable bad consequences of "The American Way" at its worst are all too clear.

Central Europe comes in for much attention in the magazines perhaps because of the rumor that Hitler would invade Czechoslovakia about the middle of August. In the *Atlantic Monthly* for August, the Central European correspondent of the *Manchester*

Guardian, M. W. Fodor, gives a first-hand, rending account of what happened in Austria last March. Gemütlichkeit is banished, the gay spirit is being extinguished, and "hatred is celebrating its victories in Vienna." In the August issues of *Fortune* and the *National Geographic Magazine* are articles on Czechoslovakia and its problems, conditions, and international relations. In this connection H. C. Wolfe's "Whose Czechoslovakia?" in the June issue of *Current History* is pertinent. In the August number of *Harpers* Professor H. L. Childs translates portions of the *Official Handbook for the Schooling of the Hitler Youth* ("The Nazi Primer"). It shows how a people may be hypnotized by official propaganda, and explains much that we read in the news. Teachers in democratic America will learn much from this Nazi textbook about the subordination of minds and the delusion of a nation.

A year ago, in *Events*, the August issue carried Professor Rippy's review of the last quarter century of our Latin-American policy. This year, in the August number, Professor Phillips Bradley discusses the new direction of that policy, "Redefining the Monroe Doctrine." He points out that in place of the earlier threat of physical invasion from the East there is now the threat of invasion by ideas. He discusses the implications of the war in Spain for Latin America, the fascist possibilities of immigrant peoples in the Latin republics, and suggests how the Monroe Doctrine may be redefined and used to meet the new kind of invasion.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by J. IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

Great Indian Chiefs. A Study of Indian Leaders in the Two Hundred Year Struggle to Stop the White Advance. By Albert Britt. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938. Pp. xi, 280. Illustrations. \$2.50.

From the days of King Philip in the latter part of the seventeenth century to the time of Chief Joseph in the closing years of the nineteenth, there has been an endless and a tragic struggle between red man and white. Indeed, were complete detail insisted upon, it would be noted that Columbus was faced with Indian hostilities nearly two centuries before King Philip and his Wampanoags so disturbed the peace in New England. Be that as it may, the book under

review does not concern itself with Spanish or French affairs. This is no discredit to the author, as by concentrating his efforts upon a study of such chiefs as came into contact with English or American settlers a higher degree of coherence is given to the entire work.

Eight Indians have been selected as representative of their race—King Philip, Joseph Brant, Pontiac, Tecumseh, Black Hawk, Sitting Bull, Captain Jack, and Chief Joseph. Any choice cannot but be arbitrary—the one above will serve quite as well as another. It will at once be seen that, without exception, the fame of these men rests largely upon their exploits in war. This is entirely logical, as the common thread which united them was the fight to retain

their tribal land—land which their ancestors held before the coming of the white man and which, they believed, should be held by their descendants "so long as the grass shall grow and the waters run." This fact, emphasized anew in each chapter, cannot be too often repeated. It is the theme-song of a race. Peaceful Indians like Massasoit and Tamanend, John Ross and Sequoyah, would not fit into such a picture.

Each Indian studied is given a separate chapter. None of the chapters are very long, those on King Philip and Sitting Bull being longest. A fair amount of biographical information is in each case combined with a summary of the history of the period involved. Mr. Britt has said little in criticism of the Indians or the policy of the government, confining himself to a narrative of the facts. Within the space allowed this is all that could be expected—but one might well wish for more space.

The work is excellently written, with no decline in interest from the first page to the last. Its sketches are not as inclusive as those in Catlin, McKenney and Hall, or Drake; they do not glow with the fascinating description of Francis Parkman; nor attain the scholarly detail of Grace R. Hebard. Nevertheless, the book is one of the most useful contributions in its field within recent years. Three criticisms might be made. (1) At least two typographical errors have been printed. "1842" should read 1742 (p. 69). "1911" should read 1811 (p. 143). (2) No footnotes are given. (3) The bibliography is far from inclusive and is not critical.

The author has produced a work that should be in every library and private collection dealing with the American Indian.

ALBAN W. HOOPES

The American Philosophical Society
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Sod-house Frontier, 1854-1890. A Social History of the Northern Plains from the Creation of Kansas and Nebraska to the Admission of the Dakotas. By Everett Dick, New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937. Pp. xviii, 550. Illustrated. \$5.00.

This book is a fascinating portrayal of the life of the region of which the author has been practically a life-long resident. Professor Dick, of Union College, Lincoln, Nebraska, is a native of Kansas; his parents settled there during the years of which he writes.

The present work is "an attempt to depict the life of the common man on the cutting edge of the frontier immediately following the date when it leaped across the Missouri River into Kansas and Nebraska and across the Red River into the vast domain now known as North and South Dakota." This task has been well performed, and the result is a

readable, interesting account, comprising an astonishing amount of information derived from manuscripts and personal interviews and from a variety of published sources. In thirty-five chapters, treating different aspects of frontier life, interspersed with contemporary photographs or other illustrations, is presented an entertaining panorama. While there is much herein that is familiar, there is much that is not so familiar. The range of topics is wide; the author seems not to have omitted anything worth mentioning. This should prove a useful source book not only for historians in various fields, but also for novelists and dramatists. The general reader, interested in tales of frontier life, will find this book no less engrossing than many a novel. Of attractive format, the printing has been excellently done. Occasionally the reading would have been made easier by the more frequent use of commas, but on the whole the composition is pleasing. A good, classified bibliography and a fair index accompany the volume, which has on the insides of the covers a map of the sod-house frontier. The reader cannot but look forward to Dr. Dick's book, now under preparation, on an earlier period of the frontier.

HENRY PUTNEY BEERS

The National Archives
Washington, D.C.

The Washington Correspondents. By Leo C. Rosten.
New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company.
1937. Pp. 436. \$3.00.

Concentration of so much of our national activity in the capital renders the rôle of the Washington correspondents most significant. They color and control the news which is read by the entire country, and therefore condition the public reaction in government and politics. Their abilities, their predilections and weaknesses, and the conditions under which they work are therefore important; and a thorough study of these in the present work is a valuable contribution to social science.

With the aid of a Social Science Research Council fellowship, the author made an objective study of the newspaper representatives in Washington, and analyzed both them and their influence. His book has two "angles," as the newspaperman would put it. First, he describes the work of the correspondent—his methods, problems, and his professional and social life as they fit into the Washington scene. Then, as a result of a questionnaire process, he analyzes the composition of the press corps—127 of them—to determine their background, social position, education, professional training, and even their attitudes on key questions. On the basis of this in a final section he evaluates the influence of the correspondent, his objectivity, reliability, and his function in our democratic society.

In every way the book is admirably done. The first part is an interesting and well written account of the correspondent in American journalism. The answers to the questionnaires provide interesting data, although not always leading to important conclusions. And the final chapter, "The Corps, the Press, and Democracy," is a provocative essay. The book is an excellent study, which should be read by all who wish to understand the forces molding our public opinion.

MILTON W. HAMILTON

Albright College
Reading, Pennsylvania

The Cambridge History of India. Volume IV, The Mughul Period. Planned by Sir Wolseley Haig, edited by Sir Richard Burn. Cambridge: University Press; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. xxvi, 670, lviii. \$12.00.

Concerned as it is with the history of India from the Mughul invasion in the early sixteenth century to the beginning of the European period in the eighteenth, this volume naturally concentrates attention upon the dynasty of Great Mughuls who reigned at Delhi in unbroken succession, son succeeding father, for six generations. Babur, starting from meager beginnings in his Trans-Oxanian homeland, consolidated his possessions north of the Hindu Kush and then invaded Hindustan and seized the kingdom of Delhi. The generous and easygoing Humayun nearly lost this patrimony, but it was extended and given coherence by Akbar, the greatest Mughul of them all. Akbar was no mere conqueror and administrator. He sought the spiritual union of the heterogeneous peoples under his dominion, a noble ideal which he pursued, however, through the rather preposterous means of an eclectic faith of his own devising. The self-indulgent Jehangir was followed by the romantic and tragic Shah Jehan, builder of the Taj Mahal, who was deposed and imprisoned by his son Aurangzib. The latter, though one of the ablest of the Mughuls, hastened the disruption of the empire by a bigoted policy of repression which alienated his Hindu supporters, and by an injudicious war of conquest in the Deccan which dissipated the resources of the empire and entailed the neglect of northern India, the true sphere of Mughul power. The whole volume, for that matter, is a record of almost interminable conflict for, as Akbar expressed the current ideal, "a monarch should ever be intent on conquest, otherwise his neighbours rise in arms against him." Of course parts of the empire enjoyed long periods of tranquillity, and the arts of peace also receive attention. Since "the basis of Indian administration is the assessment and collection of the land revenue," a separate chapter is appropriately devoted to this topic. Especially noteworthy is the fascinating chapter on

"Monuments of the Mughul Period," which is illustrated by fifty-eight magnificent plates.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Henry Wheaton 1785-1848. By Elizabeth Feaster Baker. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1937. Pp. x, 425. \$4.00.

The centennial of the first American textbook of international law, the *Elements* (1836) of Henry Wheaton, was celebrated by a new edition; and the author of that pioneering work now receives biographical recognition. It is as a legal scholar that Wheaton will be remembered, and the list of his works shows a surprising range. He lived much abroad as a diplomat, in Denmark and in Germany, and acquired a familiarity with the culture as well as the courts of Europe. He could write a learned treatise in French, and published others in Scandinavian. He was respected abroad as a distinguished scholar, although he sometimes failed to get the recognition he deserved at home as a career diplomat.

Henry Wheaton is known to many American students as reporter of the Supreme Court, 1816-1827. He was also distinguished as a lawyer and appeared before the court a number of times as counsel. He was a man of talents and sought to make use of them in politics. Therefore he undertook the editorship of the New York *National Advocate*, entered the state legislature, and was active in the New York constitutional convention of 1821. The story of these adventures, however, fails to reveal any great achievement or to illumine great events. Diplomacy found him energetic and discerning, the author of valuable reports from abroad, but even here his work seemed futile. Authorship was his rôle, and the records of scholarly ventures do not make exciting reading. The admiring biographer must conclude on a note of frustration:

His life was harassed by one disappointment following closely upon another. In seeking greater opportunity in New York, he met a barrier to the practice of his profession. His experience in the New York Assembly prevented his election to Congress. His diplomatic career began with a disappointment in the mission entrusted to him. The [financial] rewards anticipated from his work as Supreme Court reporter were denied him. The Treaty [with the Zollverein] upon which he had spent so much time and effort failed of ratification. Instead of the desired change in his diplomatic post he received his recall, and the only position which was open to him was unworthy of his attainments.

But his work in international law was to stand as a

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MILTON W. HAMILTON

Albright College
Reading, Pennsylvania

The Teacher of the Social Studies. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part XIV. By William C. Bagley and Thomas Alexander. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. Pp. xiii, 329. \$2.00.

Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part XV. By Ernest Horn. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. Pp. ix, 523. \$2.50.

These two volumes are worthy companions of the ones already produced by the American Historical Association's investigation of the social studies in the schools. Eminent scholars have made a thorough study of the available data and have evaluated and interpreted a mass of material. The quality which distinguishes these studies, is the sane and practical viewpoint of the authors. The teacher in the field who reads the books is made to feel that the actual school situations are understood and that the recommenda-

tions are suitable for the schools that are, and not Utopian fantasies.

The Commission planned the study of the teacher because he is the focal center of the instruction in any subject. The first part deals with the selection and training of teachers of social studies in the United States. The investigation was interlocked with two concurrent fact-finding surveys being made by the United States Office of Education. The findings indicate that the American people have been generous in providing buildings and equipment, but the standards of selection and education of the teachers have been inadequate. It is encouraging, however, to those who are interested in raising the teacher's professional status to find that there is evidence of a rapid advance in maturity, experience, permanence of term and preparation of the American social studies teacher.

"The selection of teachers is always important, but a peculiar significance attaches to the selection of teachers of the social studies because the educational value of the social studies depends so largely upon the way in which they are taught." (p. 49.) The proposals for the preparation of teachers of the social studies are: five years of pre-service education; special preparation in the related subjects; courses giving a cross section of the remaining large fields of culture; and purposeful extra-curricular activities.

The second part of the study surveys teacher education courses in Europe. In general, teaching in Europe is a stable and secure profession. There are high requirements for admission, long and thorough courses of training, and permanence of tenure and economic security. In return for high rewards, high standards and high returns can be demanded. In this respect America has a lesson to learn from Europe. It should not hearken to the voice overseas, however, in the matter of freedom of thought. The schools there are agencies of political education, and outside of England and Sweden the teacher of history has little freedom.

Professor Horn undertook the task of the investigation of the methods of instruction. Though he generously makes many acknowledgements for assistance, it is evident that he bore the brunt of the work. And a most creditable contribution it is. He has abbreviated material which is treated in readily available literature and discusses more fully material seldom found in treatises on the teaching of the social studies. Instead of setting up a long list of objectives, he considers the most important goals of instruction and indicates their implications for education.

He would provide for the wide range of student ability not by grouping or the differentiation of courses, but by "providing instructional equipment of a range of difficulty and depth of treatment commensurate with the range of ability at each grade level." (p. 66.) Studies which have been made show no marked advantages of small classes over large classes. But teachers with large classes should have fewer periods. Shall the pupil be taught how to think or what to think? In answering this question the author writes, "What to think and how to think should not be set in opposition, for knowledge and thinking are correlative rather than antagonistic." (p. 105.) The acquisition of a well-organized body of knowledge is an aid to freedom or facility of thought.

Running through the several chapters is the suggestion that the teacher must select the large ideas which he considers fundamental. The number should be small, as much explaining and reading is needed to perfect these ideas. Verbalism should be avoided. The improvement of reading is a responsibility which must be accepted by the social studies teacher. The Americans are a textbook-using people. The time for collateral reading is limited—yet without this reading the topics and problems cannot be understood. It follows that there must be a decrease in the number of ideas taught, with a wide and discriminative reading of the literature on each topic or problem. What can be done, however, is limited by the inadequate library facilities in most schools. The total cost of the equipment for teaching the social studies

has failed to keep pace with that of many of the other fields of the curriculum.

Visual aids are valuable because the pupil has a limited experience. They should be kept in their proper perspective as means rather than ends. All so-called devices for aiding the imagination should be examined critically to determine whether they help the student to have clear and accurate concepts and turn his attention to the essence of things.

Each of the books has extensive bibliographies. They would be useful to the student who wishes to make an intensive investigation. At the same time the teacher in service will find in them a stimulus to a greater respect for the potentialities of the teacher, and a practical and suggestive program for the improvement of the teaching of the social studies.

J. I. K.

Peace Pipes at Portage. By Ada Claire Darby. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1938. Pp. vii, 263. Illustrated. \$1.75.

Miss Darby, a native of St. Joseph, Missouri, has devoted her life to the writing of book reviews and short stories for women's magazines and to the writing of such novels as *Pinafores and Pantalettes*, *Skip-Come-A-Lou*, "Scally" Alden, *Hickory Goody*, *Sometimes Jenny Wren*, *Gay Soeurrette*, *Keturah Came 'Round the Horn*, and *Peace Pipes at Portage*. Her ancestral background and her inherited inclinations have turned her attention toward the dramatization of historical events and personages. *Peace Pipes at Portage* is her most recent attempt at historical fiction designed for the entertainment and education of boys and girls "from nine to fourteen."

In this book, the author traces the adventures of Baptiste, ten-year old son of Sacajawea, the remarkable Bird Woman of the Lewis and Clark expedition. As the adopted son of William Clark, Baptiste encounters many adventures during the year following the War of 1812, when the former co-leader of the famous expedition was governor of the Missouri Territory and attempting to gain new treaties of friendship between the Indian and the white man. He is unaware of his Indian blood and the eventual revelation is made the climax of the story. Doctor Saugrain, the Benjamin Franklin of St. Louis; Manuel Lisa, fur trader extraordinary, and the Musick family are authentic characters who take a less prominent part in the tale.

On the whole, Miss Darby has portrayed these characters faithfully. Captain Clark was probably a bit sterner than she has seen fit to draw him. A leader of a group of rough men in a rugged country who could concur in the forcing of a would-be deserter to run the gauntlet of rods several times and in the lashing of another's bare back seventy-five times for insubordination would scarcely be quite as

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patient with Baptiste as the author pictures him.

Her repeated references to Sacajawea (which she spells Sacagawea) were well-taken, for the Bird Woman was largely responsible for the safety and success of the Lewis and Clark expedition of 1804-06. Sacajawea and her husband Charbonneau, a French half-breed who was hired to guide the expedition, were the parents of Baptiste, who was born February 11, 1805, while the company was en route to the Pacific. Charbonneau proved unreliable and Sacajawea came to be entrusted with his duties. There were many instances of her devotion and I feel that Miss Darby has overlooked more exciting episodes, such as Clark's rescue of Sacajawea, Baptiste, and Charbonneau from a cloud-burst in their ravine encampment, or the meeting with Sacajawea's brother, head of a tribe of Indians who planned to kill and rob the group. The Bird Woman talked him out of this and actually secured food and horses for the expedition. When the expedition returned to the Mandan territory on its way home, Captain Clark offered to adopt Baptiste. History does not record that he did, but the presumed adoption is the basis of the novel.

Baptiste, in the story, displays remarkably fine command of English—too fine for a ten-year old raised in a frontier setting. Captain Clark's well-known inability to spell such simple words as

"gentle" and "breeze" stands out in bold comparison. However, it is the conclusion of the story which is unconvincing. Baptiste discovers that he is of Indian blood, cannot face the jeers of some and the positive aversion of others (the Musicks, for example) and runs away. Meeting with Captain "Billy," he decides to stay in the Clark home and Miss Darby leaves us with the impression everything was now highly satisfactory. It seems too difficult a situation to dismiss so easily.

Careless proof reading allowed an error in spelling on page 11 and one in punctuation on page 20. Better judgment might have omitted such expressions as "thumb to his nose" and "hell-for-leather" from a work designed for juveniles.

The virtue of the book lies in the fact that it stresses the importance of our relations with the Indians at that period and shows how British intrigue (as well as other nations') played a large part in the unrest of the frontier. In doing this, it gives an excellent picture of frontier life in and about St. Louis. I believe *Peace Pipes at Portage* will appeal more to girls than to boys. Its "adventures" are too tame for a generation of "Lone Ranger" addicts!

JOSEPH G. PLANK, JR.

Reading Standard Evening High School

Reading, Pennsylvania

The Changing West and Other Essays. By Laurence M. Larson. Northfield, Minnesota: Norwegian-American Historical Association, 1937. Pp. ix, 180. \$2.50.

In these eight essays is the fruit of scholarly inquiry into the role of Norwegians in the social and cultural history of the Northwest. For many years the head of the history department at the University of Illinois, the author will soon enjoy further distinction as the first Norwegian-American to be chosen president of the American Historical Association. Professor Larson's range is wide—his pen passing from a tolerant appraisal of a West that is ever-changing to the lively portrayal of an Irish-Norwegian skirmish in an Iowa village; from a sympathetic appreciation of the lay preacher on the frontier to an interesting survey of the contribution of the Norwegian element to American scholarship. Although the stress is laid upon his own people, the author's judgments appear sound and without bias; one may doubt, however, his statement that "the Norseman is by nature a politician."

This book should serve as an inspiration especially to Scandinavian students, pointing out as it does the fertile field of study available to them. For the general reader also this should prove a worthwhile volume. Well-written, presenting new material, particularly in the excellent sketch of the litterateur, H. H. Boyesen, significant, vital, Professor Larson's work is itself a credit to the Norwegian-American Historical Association. Lastly, it should be added that the reviewer is not related to, nor even a friend of the author.

HAROLD LARSON

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

The United States in the Making. By Leon H. Canfield, Howard B. Wilder, Frederick L. Paxson, Ellis Merton Coulter, and Nelson P. Mead. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1937. Pp. 842. Illustrated. \$2.20.

In the preface to this book, the authors state that, "On its own account the history of the United States is worthy of study as a notable and successful experiment in self-government. It is important that the citizen, upon whose opinion in the last analysis the continuance of the government must depend, should know as much as possible of its institutions and of the fundamentals of its problems." Therefore, they have attempted to present a complete history of our country in such a way that pupils will not only become keenly interested in learning about our institutions and problems, but will feel a desire to help improve some of the conditions that now exist.

One of the finest features of this book is its many

splendid illustrations and maps. Particularly appealing are the cartoons which have been carefully chosen and which give so much meaning to the issues being studied. Every teacher realizes that most pupils are interested in biography. The authors have taken this fact into consideration and placed many biographical sketches throughout the book. The Study Helps at the end of each chapter include Suggestions for Further Reading (General Accounts and Special Accounts), Suggestions for Class Discussion, and Suggestions for Pupil Activity.

This book is divided into eight units and each unit is preceded by a brief description which gives the reader a "bird's-eye-view" of what follows. This also helps the reader to understand better the continuity which exists between the different chapters. Because of the wealth of material contained in *The United States in the Making* and because of its organization and readability, this reviewer feels that it is an excellent textbook for high school classes. If not used as a textbook, it is a commendable book to have in the school library or classroom for reference or supplementary reading.

BETTY McCORD

Darby Senior High School
Darby, Pennsylvania

Personal and Social Adjustment: A Text in Social Science. By Willis L. Uhl and Francis F. Powers. New York: Macmillan, 1938. Pp. xi, 475. \$1.40.

"An Orientation Course in the Social Studies" might well be the subtitle of this attractive volume, avowedly written from the viewpoint of functional social psychology. In simple language the authors present certain aspects of sociology, civics, economics, ethics, mental hygiene, and guidance. While especially adapted to the secondary-school level, the book will find a place in many college libraries. Teachers, and prospective teachers, will find it valuable on account of the pedagogical insights afforded.

The chapters are grouped so as to constitute "units," under these headings: Successful Living, Social Life in the Modern World, Types of Personal Adjustment, Types of Social Adjustment, and The Development of Social Responsibility. Noteworthy are Chapters III, VIII, IX, X, and XIV. The first-mentioned discusses the human organism, the next three deal with problems relating to study and learning, while the last-mentioned treats of institutions.

Exercises, called "Pupil Activities," and "Further Reading" book lists follow each chapter. The illustrations and frequent anecdotes tend to give the work liveliness.

The Funeral Oration of Pericles might have been quoted with effect to follow the Ephebic Oath (p. 460). In analyzing the latter, the inference is drawn

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that, while the ancient Greeks had a single religion, we have many. Do we not have one religion and many creeds?

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"Citizens . . . of America require guidance along the new highway of social responsibility. Travelers on this highway are entering a land blessed with a new social climate The pattern of national life by which America has been fashioned was once a vision. Citizens . . . are engaged in the glorious labor of turning that vision into reality."

J. F. SANTEE

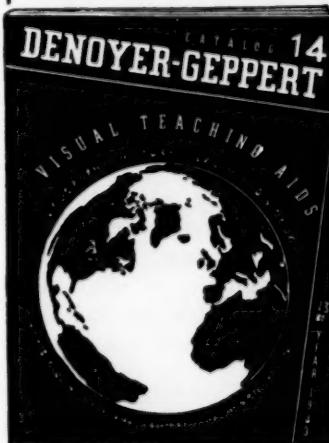
Oregon Normal School
Monmouth Oregon

BOOK NOTES

Macmillan's Modern Dictionary (Compiled and edited under the supervision of Bruce Overton. New York: 1938. Pp. xiii, 1466. Regular edition, \$3.00; thumb-indexed, \$3.50) is an up-to-date dictionary for high school and college students, for lecturers and writers, and for the business office. Omitting illustrations and all appendices and listing geographical names, names of persons, foreign phrases, abbreviations, biographical data, and the like in their alphabetical place in the dictionary, the work presents almost 150,000 words, proper names and

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phrases, including widely used colloquial, idiomatic, and slang terms as well as words and phrases which have come into use since the World War. The aim has been to make the dictionary a practical reference book for all except those who need the technical vocabulary of a specialty. All entries are in bold face, and the type is clear and not small. Derivations are given, as well as alternative spellings and pronunciations.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Why Women Work. Public Affairs Pamphlets, No. 17, 1938. Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 8 West 40 Street, New York. 10 cents.

A report by Beulah Amidon on the responsibility of business and professional women for dependents, based upon a study made by the National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., at the request of the International Labor Office of the League of Nations. A practical study with five pictographic tables showing what women work, what they work at, what they work for, how they live, and who depend upon them. Deals mainly with women employed in clerical and professional occupations and in the selling trades.

Hull Trade Program and the American System. By R. L. Buell. World Affairs Pamphlets, No. 2, 1938. Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 8 West 40 Street, New York. 25 cents.

The uses of tariffs on imports in a competitive economy and the objectives of the Hull trade program with respect to the post-war protection policy of the United States, world peace, and the economic welfare of nations.

Talking It Through; a Manual for Discussion Groups. Discussion Group Project, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 15 cents.

Explains the purposes and progress of the discussion-group movement and sets forth methods for forming and maintaining such groups. Special emphasis is placed upon the techniques of discussion. Helpful also in increasing the value of classroom recitations.

Forums for Young People. Office of Education, Bulletin, No. 25, 1937. Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. 15 cents.

Studies the problems and analyzes plans involved in forum discussions for high schools and colleges as well as for other youth. Brings together most of the experience with forums in different parts of the country. Helpful to all actively engaged in forum discussions whether in school or out, with youth or with adults.

Constitution Up to Date. By C. H. Coleman. National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin, No. 10, May, 1938. National Council for the Social Studies, Cambridge, Mass. 50 cents.

Arranges the items of the Constitution, bringing scattered clauses on the same subject together, omitting dead material such as counting slaves for direct taxation, and suggesting a few alterations in existing provisions and a few new ones. Useful for students of government.

Course of Study on Consumers' Coöperation. State Department of Education, St. Paul, Minn.

A semester's course designed for senior high schools. Its units may be used in junior high schools and in connection with other courses. Deals with consumer coöperation, its rise and spread here and abroad, credit unions. An outline for a briefer course is included. References and bibliography are given.

Farm Business. By R. L. Horne. Third edition, 1938. University of Chicago Press. 25 cents.

An analysis of the agricultural problem of the United States. Useful and interesting for high school pupils.

Urban Scene. By M. H. Bro. *Social Action*, July 15, 1938. Council for Social Action, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York. 10 cents.

A profusely illustrated account of cities, their problems, and the responsibilities of citizens. Useful in civics classes.

Changes and Trends in Child Labor and Its Control. By Homer Folks. National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue, New York.

Address of the Chairman of the National Child Labor Committee, describing the changing nature of child labor, the extent of such labor, the development of legislation in the states, and the prospects for federal control.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The Activity Concept: An Interpretation. By Lois Coffey Mossman. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938. Pp. xvii, 197. \$1.50.

This book aims to explain and show the merits of the activity concept.

American History and Government. By Roy Greenwood. Buffalo: W. Hazleton Smith, 1938. Pp. 266. 40 cents.

A review book for class drill and preparation for assignments.

Beyond High School. By M. E. Bennett and H. C. Hand. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938. Pp. xv, 227. Illustrated. \$1.36.

WHEN YOU BUY

Trilling-Eberhart-Nicholas. A consumer education text for high school students, which meets the demands of progressive teachers for a practical approach to problems of the consumer-buyer. Cartoon illustrations. \$1.80 list price.

OUR CHANGING GOVERNMENT

Steinberg-Lamm. The 1938 edition of the most modern and functional government text on the market. Contains many new charts and graphs, as well as much new material concerning events in the last year. Filled with excellent illustrations. \$1.80 list.

MODERN WORLD GEOGRAPHY

Case-Bergsmark. This 1938 text emphasizes social and economic phases of world geography, with much attention paid to the United States and her relations to the rest of the world. Different in content and organization. Beautifully illustrated. \$1.96 list.

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**PRICE: 52 cents per copy. Special price to schools
41 cents per copy, carriage extra.**

McKINLEY PUBLISHING COMPANY

1021 Filbert Street

Philadelphia, Pa.

This is the third volume of a series on group guidance activities. It considers the problems which the student will encounter when the high school days are over.

Elements of Economics. By Charles Ralph Fay and William C. Bagley, Jr. Second Revised Edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938. Pp. xiv, 562. \$1.80.

An economics textbook for secondary school students.

Everyday Economics: A Study of Practices and Principles. By Cornelius C. Janzen and Orlando W. Stephenson. New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1938. Pp. xiii, 512, xviii. Illustrated. \$1.68.

A revised edition of a high school economics textbook.

The Folly of Instalment Buying. By Roger W. Babson. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1938. Pp. ix, 248. \$1.50.

A study of the instalment plan: its history, legitimate functions and abuses, relation to business, influence on personal loan companies and on the labor problem.

The Gateway to History. By Allan Nevins. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1938. Pp. vii, 412. \$3.00.

A scholarly book about history which aims to help the general reader appreciate the wealth of talent and genius poured into it; the problems and obstacles it presents; and the store of ideas it has for him.

History of the United States Since 1865. Volume II. New Edition. By Asa Earl Martin. New York: Ginn and Company, 1938. Pp. xiii, 857. \$4.00.

Intended primarily as a textbook for undergraduate college students.

Josiah Bushnell Grinnell. By Charles E. Payne. (Iowa Biographical Series, Edited by Benjamin F. Shambaugh.) Iowa City, Iowa: The State Historical Society of Iowa, 1938. Pp. xii, 338. \$2.00.

The biography of a pioneer and a political leader. The book also describes pioneer days in Iowa and the trends of the nation in the Civil War period.

Peace-Pipes at Portage: A Story of Old St. Louis. By Ada Claire Darby. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1938. Pp. 263. \$1.75.

A story for boys and girls from ten to fourteen. Background and characters are from the region of old St. Louis after the War of 1812.

Marcus Whitman, Crusader, Part Two, 1839-1843. (Volume VII of *Overland to the Pacific: A Narrative-Documentary History of the Great Epochs of the Far West*). Edited by Archer Butler Hulbert and Dorothy Printup Hulbert. Denver: The Stewart Commission of Colorado College and the Denver Public Library, 1938. Pp. xii, 342. Illustrated. \$5.00.

Another volume of the series which presents a history of the West in the words of the pioneers themselves. Outstanding documents are bound together in a readable narrative.

Our Country and Our People: An Introduction to American Civilization. By Harold Rugg. New York: Ginn and Company, 1938. Pp. xiv, 591. \$1.88.

The first volume of the Rugg Social Science Course. A simpler and shorter revision of *An Introduction to American Civilization*, with considerable change in material.

Problems and Values of Today: A Series of Student's Guidebooks for the Study of Contemporary Life. Volume I. By Eugene Hilton. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1938. Pp. xviii, 639. \$1.60.

A textbook for the study of modern problems in the senior high school.

Story of Civilization. By Carl L. Becker and Frederic Duncalf. New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1938. Pp. xv, 853, xix. Illustrated, Maps. \$2.40.

A high school text covering the entire span of human history. The first three units of the book are new; the last two are a revision and condensation of Carl L. Becker's *Modern History*.

Urban Sociology. By Earl E. Muntz. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938. Pp. xvi, 742. \$3.75.

A consideration of some of the major adjustments to urban life, such as rights, duties, and freedom in the city environment, and the communal responsibility for housing, health, education, and recreation.

When You Buy. By Mabel B. Trilling, E. Kingman Eberhart and Florence Williams Nicholas. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1938. Pp. viii, 401. Illustrated. \$1.80.

The purpose of this book is to provide for students in high school and elementary college courses the basic material for the study of consumer-buying.

Your Washington. By Mary Field Parton. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1938. Pp. xiii, 193. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A description of the places the visitor in the National Capital would wish to see.